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Entrepreneurship, easier said than done

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ENTREPRENEURSHIP, EASIER SAID THEN DONE...

A study on success and well-being among entrepreneurs in The Netherlands



Josette Dijkhuizen

ENTREPRENEURSHIP, EASIER SAID THEN DONE...

Josette Dijkhuizen

*"the power of your company
is within yourself"*

Josette Dijkhuizen was fascinated by entrepreneurship from the moment she started her own enterprise. The dynamics of entrepreneurship in a constantly changing environment, the innovativeness, the persistence of the entrepreneur and the value he or she creates, made her eager to learn more. Especially the person behind the enterprise became her main point of interest. In this thesis she reveals the processes leading to success and well-being of entrepreneurs in The Netherlands by means of four scientific papers.

Josette has become a well-known entrepreneurship consultant, business coach, author of books, columns and articles, and a recognized speaker and lecturer. In 2013 she was appointed as Women's Representative in the Netherlands Delegation to the United Nations. She received different awards for her work.

ENTREPRENEURSHIP, EASIER SAID THAN DONE...

A STUDY ON SUCCESS AND WELL-BEING AMONG ENTREPRENEURS IN THE NETHERLANDS

Josette Dijkhuizen

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ENTREPRENEURSHIP, EASIER SAID THAN DONE...

A STUDY ON SUCCESS AND WELL-BEING AMONG ENTREPRENEURS IN THE NETHERLANDS

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*I dedicate this dissertation to all entrepreneurs
and entrepreneurial people in the world.
That they never lose sight of the value they can create
for the well-being of us all.*

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION



“My business is focused on connecting entrepreneurs and therefore I initiated a business platform, an entrepreneurial talkshow, and pitch events. These activities lead to a synergy in the value entrepreneurs create for the economy at large.”

David van Iersel, owner '24U in bedrijf'

Background

This dissertation is about success and well-being among entrepreneurs in The Netherlands. With the different studies both constructs are further elaborated, and their relationship is investigated, both cross-sectional and longitudinal. Studies into this area are important, as successful entrepreneurship is of major importance to wealth creation in driving economic development through employment creation, innovation, and growth (e.g. Schumpeter, 1934; Kirzner, 2009; Carree & Thurik, 2003; Van Praag & Versloot, 2007; 2008; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). However, not all entrepreneurs contribute equally to the macroeconomic growth, as it is a relatively small number of fast-growing companies that create jobs and contribute to the growth figures (Stam et al., 2009). The entrepreneur himself or herself does not primarily aim to make contributions in macroeconomic terms. He or she has personal reasons for starting-up and running an enterprise (e.g. Rauch & Frese, 2007; Shane et al., 2003). The individual aspect of entrepreneurship is included in the definition of entrepreneurship of two prominent researchers in this area, Shane and Venkataraman. They state that “the field involves the study of sources of opportunities; the processes of discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities; and the set of individuals who discover, evaluate, and exploit them” (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000, p. 218).

A psychological rather than an economical approach recognizes the importance of these personal ambitions, goals and motives. A reasonable amount of studies have already been executed in this area of the psychology of entrepreneurship (e.g. Baum, et al., 2007; Cooper & Gimeno-Gascon, 1992; Frese & Gielnik, 2014; Rauch & Frese, 2000). Studies in this field make it clear that entrepreneurs look for autonomy, also described as ‘independence’ or ‘freedom’ (Bruins & Snel 2008; Van Gelderen & Jansen, 2006), extrinsic rewards, such as personal wealth and income (Kuratko et al., 1997), intrinsic rewards such as personal growth and satisfaction, challenge and public recognition (Kuratko et al., 1997; Walker and Brown, 2004), family security (Kuratko et al., 1997; Shane et al., 2003), and a high need for achievement (McClelland, 1961, 1965).

Although a fair amount of research has been executed on the entrepreneur as a person, there is no definition agreed upon (e.g. Chell, 2008; Gartner, 1985; Rauch & Frese, 2000). This makes it difficult to compare results across scientific studies. The economist Richard Cantillon (1680-1734) used the word ‘entrepreneur’ for the first time. Many scientists followed and studied the field of entrepreneurship ever since. Mill (1848) provided one of the earliest definitions and suggested that risk-bearing was the major feature that separated entrepreneurs from managers (Collins et al., 2004). McClelland (1961, 1965) also argued that risk-taking is an essential element in entrepreneurship and draws attention to the need of achievement as specific for

entrepreneurs. He argued that the definition should centre on the responsibilities of initiating and being accountable for business decisions. In contrast to Mill and McClelland, Schumpeter (1934) argued that both entrepreneurs and managers face risks and instead differ in terms of their emphasis on innovation. Schumpeter's idea is that the entrepreneur is actively looking for new business opportunities, where he finds options for creating new, innovative products and markets. Researchers that follow his view on entrepreneurship tend to identify entrepreneurs as those who recognise market opportunities and take the initiative to create new businesses (Baron, 2004; Bolton & Thompson, 2004; Gartner, 1988; Shane, 2003; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). If entrepreneurs are seen as the creators of new businesses, they are the founders of new firms. This implies that once the company is established, entrepreneurship ends. According to Rauch & Frese (2000) and Van Praag & Versloot (2007) not just founding, but also owning and managing a firm are the important aspects of entrepreneurship. Others define different categories of entrepreneurs (e.g. Burggraaf et al., 2005), or distinguish entrepreneurs from small business owners (Carland et al., 1984). The definition of the entrepreneur developed for this dissertation, is:

“The entrepreneur is the person who turns his or her ideas and ambitions into a well-functioning enterprise, that creates value for himself or herself, his or her employees and the society, and focuses on innovation and extension of activities, where he or she carries full responsibility (at own risk and for his or her own account) and where he or she directly feels the consequences of his or her decisions.”

This definition includes all entrepreneurs: small and large firms, young and old companies, nascent and more experienced entrepreneurs and the entrepreneurs without personnel. Furthermore, having a business idea and a personal ambition as starting point for founding or continuing a business is included in this definition. He or she sees an opportunity and wants to take advantage of it with his or her own product or service. This definition is mainly appropriate for innovation-driven economies as is the case for most European countries (Amorós & Bosma, 2013). This business idea needs to be congruent with the ambition of the founding ‘father’ or ‘mother’. He or she takes initiatives and obtains the necessary means to realize business and personal goals. This is the difference between the entrepreneur and the external shareholder. The entrepreneur also has the final responsibility, and works at his or her own risk and for his or her own account, which distinguishes the entrepreneur from the manager. The entrepreneur is the person taking decisions and really feeling

the consequences, both positive and negative. This dissertation focuses on founders and owners of enterprises in business for more than one year, so they are able to reflect upon their own past success and well-being. Since entrepreneurs also are important to wealth and well-being in a larger context, it is interesting to learn more about the psychological processes leading to success and well-being of the man or woman behind the door of the office or manufacturing building. He or she is starting-up or running a business and needs to perform, facing all the challenges involved. Knowing more about the processes that hold back or stimulate well-being and performance is crucial for entrepreneurs themselves, but also for policy makers, educational institutions and business consultants, as it enables them to design the appropriate programs to help entrepreneurs perform better. If business owners can increase their performance, this effects not just their personal lives, but the economy at large.

The next paragraph elaborates on the theoretical starting point followed by the research aim and accompanying research questions.

Theoretical starting point

This thesis explores the psychological processes that hold back or stimulate well-being and business success in the different studies. As a theoretical starting point, a few models were considered, such as the Demand-Induced Strain Compensation Model (De Jonge & Dormann, 2003), the Effort-Reward Imbalance Model (Siegrist, 1996), the Demand-Control (Support) Model (Karasek & Theorell, 1990) and the Job Demands-Resources Model (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2007). The latter mentioned Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R Model) was chosen as starting point. This widely validated model among employees (e.g. Bakker et al., 2010; Hakanen et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Taris, 2013) includes well-being and performance as constructs, and provides insights into both a stress and a motivational process leading to performance, see Figure 1. This JD-R Model is one of the models resulting from many decades of studies into the effect of job characteristics on employee well-being, both positive (e.g. work engagement), and negative (e.g. strain) (e.g. Aldwin and Revenson, 1986; De Jonge and Dormann, 2006; De Jonge et al., 2001; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli and Salanova, 2007). Demerouti et al. (2001) developed the ‘job demands-resources model of burnout’, which focused on the strain process with job demands related to exhaustion, and a lack of job resources relating to disengagement. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) elaborated on this model and extended it to include not just the stress process, but also the motivational process and the possibility of (lack of) job resources to not just impact disengagement, but also to buffer the influence of job demands on strain.

The JD-R Model of Bakker and Demerouti (2007; 2008) relates job demands with job

resources, and extends the role of job demands as the most crucial predictor of work-related strain in a stress process (Bakker et al., 2003; 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; 2008; Demerouti et al., 2001). This process develops when (certain) job demands are high and (certain) job resources are limited, leading to higher work-related strain and, in turn, a decrease in organizational performance. The model includes a motivational process running from job resources to well-being, which in turn leads to increased organizational performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). When job resources are high, a positive feeling of well-being is likely. Both processes are important to performance and are therefore included in this dissertation. Besides including two processes leading to performance and well-being, the JD-R

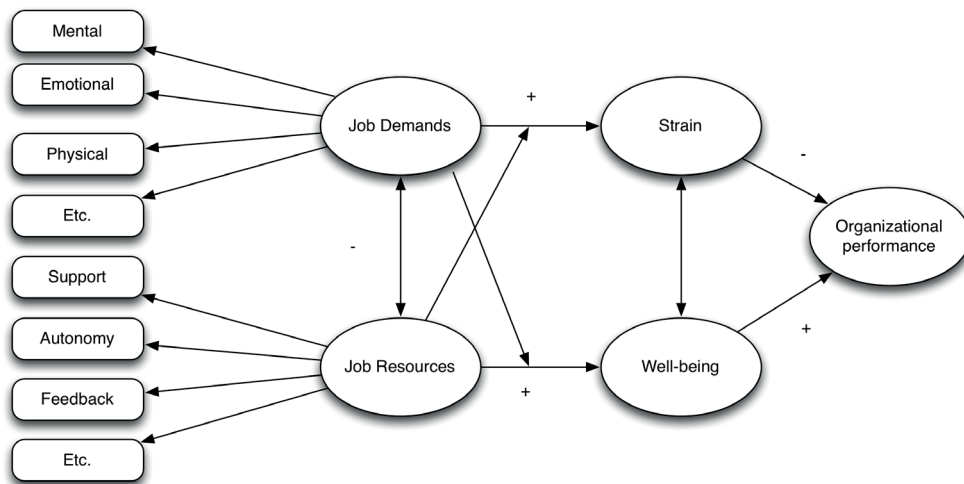


Figure 1: The Job Demands-Resources Model of well-being (based on: Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)

Model is assumed to be more flexible in the psychosocial risk factors than other models (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2007; Schaufeli & Taris, 2013), and provides more insight into the link between job characteristics and well-being (Van Veldhoven et al., 2005). Especially the relationship between the characteristics of a job and well-being among business owners is important to this thesis. We know that entrepreneurs have a different occupation from employees, in that they, for example, have a greater risk propensity, stress tolerance and autonomy (e.g. Baron, 2004; Boyd & Begley, 1987; Buttner, 1992; Collins et al., 2004; Prottas & Thompson, 2006; Rahim, 1996; Rauch & Frese, 2007), but scientific knowledge on which and how specific characteristics (job demands and job resources) influence both business success and well-being at this moment and over time is not easy to find (e.g. Tetrick et al., 2000; Wincent & Örtqvist, 2009). This thesis reveals these processes in the different studies, but before

discussing the research questions of these studies, it reviews the different constructs of the JD-R Model.

Job demands

The JD-R Model relates work-related strain and well-being to two categories of work characteristics: job demands and job resources. Central element of the JD-R Model is the notion that every occupation may have its own specific working conditions and risk factors associated with work-related strain: the job demands. Job demands refer to “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs (e.g. exhaustion)” (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Examples are high work pressure, personal conflicts, physical demands, role conflict, role ambiguity, and emotionally demanding interactions with clients (Alarcon, 2011; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). These job demands might turn into job stressors. The greater the effort required to deal with the job demands, the higher the physiological and psychological costs, which leads to work-related strain or exhaustion (e.g. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Meijman & Mulder, 1998; Taris & Schreurs, 2009; Tetrick et al., 2000). Thus, job demands can lead to work-related strain in the stress process of the JD-R Model, and Study 1 and Study 2 (Chapter 2 and 3) will investigate this in more detail.

Job resources

Job resources “refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that either/or 1) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; 2) are functional in achieving work goals (extrinsic motivational role, Ed.), and 3) stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (intrinsic motivational role, Ed.)” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 296). Examples of job resources are social support, autonomy, performance feedback, skill variety, decision involvement, and learning opportunities (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Chay, 1993; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Previous research has made clear that entrepreneurs have these different kinds of job resources at their disposal (e.g. Eden, 1975; Prottas & Thompson, 2006).

Besides being important as counterbalance for job demands, job resources spark off the motivational process in the JD-R Model by their positive relationship with well-being, often investigated as work engagement (e.g. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; 2008). Work engagement is defined as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74) and is positively influenced by job resources, such as performance feedback,

social support, and supervisory coaching (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). According to the JD-R Model, increased well-being in turn leads to higher performance, which can be either job and/or organizational performance (Sonnentag, 2002). Study 3 and Study 4 (Chapter 4 and 5) investigate this relationship between well-being and performance. According to Bakker & Demerouti (2008), there are at least four reasons for this, i.e. that engaged employees 1) often have positive emotions, including happiness, joy, and enthusiasm; 2) experience better health; 3) create their own job and personal resources, and 4) transfer their engagement to others. On the other hand, the absence of job resources results in a negative attitude to work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; 2008). This loss of job resources is also found in the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989; 2001). This theoretical concept's central element is the notion that the motivation of people is directed at gaining and maintaining things they value. A threat of loss, or an actual loss of resources can cause work-related strain (e.g. Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Hobfoll, 2001; Hobfoll et al., 2003). The gain spiral in this theory assumes that job resources lead to work engagement, which is also confirmed in previous studies (e.g. Chay, 1993; Hakanen et al., 2008a; 2008b).

Strain

The stress process in the JD-R Model, indicates job demands as the most important predictors of work-related strain (Bakker et al., 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; 2008; Demerouti et al., 2001a), also referred to as stress, exhaustion, and burnout. A definition of exhaustion is stated by Demerouti et al. (2003, p. 298) as “a consequence of intensive physical, affective, and cognitive strain, i.e., as long-term consequence of prolonged exposure to certain job demands”. Although job demands do not have to be negative, they may turn into stressors if the person needs to put a lot of effort into the demand from which the person has not recovered well (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Meijman & Mulder, 1998). In that case, job demands predict work-related strain, which in turn leads to lower job or organizational performance (e.g. Bakker et al., 2004; Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Onwezen et al., 2012; Taris, 2006; Wright & Bonett, 1997). The job resources in the JD-R Model function as a buffer in the relationship between job demands and work-related strain (Bakker et al., 2005).

Most of the studies on work-related strain are among employees and confirm the relationship between job demands and work-related strain (e.g. Aldwin & Revenson, 1986; Bakker et al., 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2011). There is research available on stress among for example engineers (Keenan & Newton, 1985; 1987), police officers (Arcuri & Lester, 1990; Liberman et al., 2002), teachers (Russell et al., 1987), and health care workers (Greenglass & Burke, 2000; Lang et al., 1990; Tetrick and LaRocco, 1987).

According to Kahn et al. (1964), work-related strain is especially evident in jobs that

require innovation, boundary spanning, or involve task complexity. Entrepreneurship requires these specific hallmarks. However, among entrepreneurs the topic of work-related strain is rather unexplored, and only a few studies pointed out the presence of entrepreneurial stress (Begley & Boyd, 1987; Boyd & Begley, 1987; Boyd & Gumpert, 1983; Buttner, 1992; Gorgievski et al., 2010b; Parslow et al., 2004; Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009). This dissertation will investigate the influence of work-related strain in the JD-R Model in more detail in Study 2 and Study 4 (Chapter 3 and 5).

Well-being

Subjective well-being, also called ‘happiness’, is about the frequent experience of positive feelings. It refers to the individual’s cognitive and affective evaluation of their lives (Diener, 1994; Diener, 2000). According to Diener, “people experience abundant subjective well-being when they feel many pleasant and few unpleasant emotions, when they are engaged in interesting activities, when they experience many pleasures and few pains, and when they are satisfied with their lives” (Diener, 2000, p. 34). In short, well-being is about positive emotions. There are a number of separable components of subjective well-being (Diener 2000). First of all life satisfaction as context-free general judgment of one’s life. Secondly, satisfaction with important domains such as job satisfaction. The third aspect is positive affect, which is the experience of many pleasant emotions and moods. Affect captures people’s immediate evaluation of the events that happen in their life. At fourth instance there are low levels of negative affect, experiencing few unpleasant emotions and moods.

In the past decades, many studies in the psychological arena have been executed on these different dimensions of well-being, moving from emphasis on negative states to positive states (e.g. Diener et al., 1999; Fredrickson, 2013; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Nowadays, a large amount of research can be found on life satisfaction (e.g. Diener et al., 1985; 2003; Ehrhardt et al., 2000), job satisfaction (e.g. Bradley & Roberts, 2004; Judge et al., 2001; Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000), affect (e.g. Aspinwall, 1998, Diener et al., 1999; Russell, 1980; 2003; Russell & Feldman Barrett, 1999), and work engagement (e.g. Bakker et al., 2011a; 2011b; Salanova et al., 2005; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2011).

Besides in understanding the different dimensions of well-being, academic progress is also made in analyzing the influence of well-being on, for example, life events (e.g. Headey & Wearing, 1989; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005a), and the relationship with work performance (e.g. Christian et al., 2011; Gruman & Saks, 2011; Mahto et al., 2010). This link between well-being and economics is fairly recent (Frey, 2008). Economic research has identified the major determinants of self-reported subjective well-being. Among the many factors systematically influencing it, employment stands out. Persons who are unemployed are much less happy than other persons, even when

other influences such as lower income are controlled for (Frey, 2008; Benz & Frey, 2008). Looking at differences between the self-employed and the employed, it is clear from several studies (Andersson, 2008; Benz & Frey, 2003, 2004, 2008; Blanchflower & Oswald, 1998; Hundley, 2001; Bradley & Roberts, 2004; Tetrick, et al., 2000) that the self-employed are more satisfied with their jobs than employed workers. According to Hundley (2001), an explanation can be found in the fact that the self-employed have more autonomy, greater flexibility, more utilization of their skills, and, to some extent, higher perceived job security (positive 'job availability' and negative 'job loss likelihood').

Looking at life satisfaction, Andersson (2008) found a positive correlation with self-employment. In addition, Dolan et al. (2008) found that moving from employment to entrepreneurship leads to an increase in life satisfaction, while changing from unemployment to entrepreneurship does not give more satisfaction than moving to a regular job. In studying the relationship of both job and life satisfaction with business performance, only recently Dej (2011) found a positive relationship among entrepreneurs. Research among entrepreneurs on work engagement is not widespread, but studies to date show a high level of work engagement compared to employees (e.g. Gorgievski et al., 2010a, Smulders, 2006). Study 3 (Chapter 4) offers a further extension of the knowledge on well-being among entrepreneurs, when multiple types of well-being among entrepreneurs are investigated, also in relationship with business performance.

In the relationship between subjective well-being and success, many different studies show that happy people are successful across multiple life domains, including marriage, friendship, income, work performance, and health (e.g. Lyubomirsky et al., 2005a; 2005b; Sonnentag, 2002). The relationship between success and well-being has been studied mainly from a motivational perspective, i.e. the role of psychological well-being on (job and organizational) performance (e.g. Bakker & Bal, 2010; Demerouti and Cropanzano, 2010; Gruman and Saks, 2011; Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2008; Harter et al., 2002; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). The effect of success on well-being has been studied to a much lesser extent (e.g. Aldwin and Revenson, 1986; Carree and Verheul, 2012; Gorgievski et al., 2010b). This thesis extends this knowledge by studying the bi-directional relationship between success and well-being over a two year time interval (Chapter 5).

Organizational performance

Organizational performance is the final outcome of the JD-R Model which in this thesis refers to as business performance or business success. Business success is a recurring topic in the academic literature in fields ranging from economics to psychology. Everyone is interested in finding the success factor. In literature there

is no consensus on what entrepreneurial success is (Pérez & Canino, 2009; Walker & Brown, 2004). Mostly, the success of businesses is analysed with an emphasis on objective measures, such as company size, profit and turnover (e.g. Cooper et al., 1994; Van Praag & Versloot, 2008). Van Praag & Versloot (2007, p. 377) conclude in their paper “that entrepreneurs have a very important – but specific – function in the economy. They cause relatively much employment creation, productivity growth and produce and commercialize high quality innovations.” Next to these objective indicators of business success, entrepreneurs value more personal success factors (e.g. Gorgievski et al., 2011; Kuratko et al., 1997; Pérez and Canino, 2009; Walker and Brown, 2004). In a study in which 150 Dutch small business owners ranked ten success criteria, Gorgievski et al. (2011) found two dimensions: personal-oriented and business-oriented criteria. Their results show that business owners in their sample ranked personal and interpersonal criteria higher than business criteria. These results are in line with other research among Dutch business owners (Bruins & Snel, 2008). As such, the personal criteria might mean something different to different entrepreneurs, as every entrepreneur has his or her own ambitions, values and goals. Subjective success refers to individuals’ feelings about their accomplishments (Gattiker & Larwood 1986). This means that individuals measure how successful they are according to their personal criteria and, indirectly, their personal values.

Dej (Dej et al. 2010; Dej 2011) concluded that there are limitations to current success measures and looked into an instrument to measure success criteria that entrepreneurs themselves regard as relevant. Dej’s study explores entrepreneurs’ individual importance and valuation of diverse success criteria, such as personal fulfilment and personal financial rewards. Dej (2011) found in line with Pérez and Canino (2009) that “beyond profit generation and maximization entrepreneurs strive to maintain positive relationships with their employees and customers, for social recognition, to contribute back to society or for firm continuity”.

There is a growing recognition among researchers that it is important to understand these personal criteria for entrepreneurial success (e.g. Dyke & Murphy, 2006; Gorgievski, et al., 2011; Walker & Brown, 2004). However, studies based on subjective measures are less common than studies using objective financial measures. An important reason for this might be that it is difficult to make comparisons between firms if subjective criteria are used (Reid and Smith, 2000). It is therefore recommended to use a combination of objective and subjective criteria when measuring the success of an enterprise and use their complementarity (Pérez & Canino, 2009). Furthermore, this thesis makes a study of different business performance measures (self-reported objective success, subjective personal success, and subjective financial success) in relationship with well-being, both cross-sectional (Chapter 3) and longitudinal (Chapter 5).

Research aim and core questions

The research in this dissertation is aimed at examining the psychological processes that hold back or stimulate well-being and business success. The studies are all executed among entrepreneurs in The Netherlands, and are divided in a qualitative pre-study (Appendix A) and four quantitative studies (Chapter 2 to 5), see Figure 2. Together, these studies are aimed at enhancing our insight on entrepreneurial success and well-being. The four studies contribute to literature in a number of ways. Firstly, the specific job demands that entrepreneurs need to encounter, are identified and measured in Study 1 (Chapter 2). The results are recorded in the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale which could be used both by scientists and practitioners (see Appendix D). Study 2 investigates how these specific job demands, next to regular job demands, relate to work-related strain and work engagement, as well as to feelings of success (Chapter 3). This study focuses on psychological rather than business outcomes of entrepreneurship, and contextualizes job demands and job resources for entrepreneurs. In the next study, the four types of work-related affective well-being are elaborated on, and the influence on business performance is measured (Chapter 4). This study contributes to our understanding of different types of work-related affective well-being among entrepreneurs, and the effect on business performance. Lastly, a longitudinal relationship between well-being and business success is studied with a two year time interval (Chapter 5). This not only provides insight into longer term bi-directional effects, but also elaborates on the knowledge of multiple measures of both well-being and entrepreneurial success.

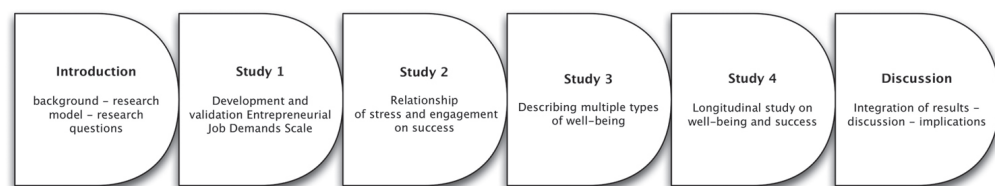


Figure 2: Structure of the dissertation

Summing up, this dissertation is aimed at improving our knowledge of these psychological processes and gives an answer to the following overarching research question:

**Which factors influence success and well-being among entrepreneurs,
and how are these dimensions related?**

To start answering this research question using the JD-R Model as a theoretical starting point (see Figure 1), the first step is to gain more insight into the job demands as predictors of work-related strain (Bakker et al., 2003; 2010; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; 2008; Demerouti et al., 2001). This is important, as there appear to be job demands that are specific to certain occupations (Hurrell et al., 1998; Sparks & Cooper, 1999). There is a great deal of research into the job demands on employees, but far less into these demands on entrepreneurs (Wincent & Örtqvist, 2009). If more knowledge is gathered about the job demands for business owners, potential causes of entrepreneurial work-related strain that may obstruct economic functioning, may be found (e.g. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Hakanen et al., 2008b). Having more insight might help government institutions, universities and business schools, business consultants and entrepreneurs to find ways of assisting the entrepreneurs in coping with the job demands. The first research question therefore is:

Research question 1 Are there any specific entrepreneurial job demands, apart from regular job demands, for entrepreneurs?

This research question is elaborated on in a pre-study with interviews, see Appendix A. The interviews are taken with ten entrepreneurs, who also had previous work experience in an employed capacity. These interviews enabled the first research question to be answered and the first study of specific entrepreneurial job demands to be built. From the pre-study, items could be formulated that reflected the different dimensions of entrepreneurial job demands. In a quantitative study (Chapter 2), an online questionnaire was sent to entrepreneurs in The Netherlands, in order to test the items formulated on entrepreneurial job demands. The research question for the first study is:

Research question 2 Can distinct dimensions of specific entrepreneurial job demands be measured reliably, and do such measures show valid correlations with work-related strain and work-related well-being?

The pre-study and first study together allowed the job demands that apply specifically to entrepreneurs to be recorded in a validated scale. This is a necessary step to be able to finally answer the overall research question. At the time the job demands were revealed, they needed to be taken into account in the study of the effect of job demands on the stress process (the relationship of job demands with work-related strain), the effect on the motivational process (the relationship of job resources and work engagement), and finally the way these processes lead to the entrepreneurs'

feelings of success. This second study, therefore, contributes to answering the main research question. By executing this research, business owners get more information on preventing and eliminating work-related strain, and achieving higher subjective financial and personal success. The study is included in Chapter 3 with the following research question:

Research question 3 How does the stress process and motivational process within the JD-R Model work for entrepreneurs in relation to subjective personal and financial success?

Study 3 (Chapter 4) elaborates further on the topic of work-related well-being as part of the JD-R Model. This study integrates four types of work-related affective well-being into the circumplex model of affective well-being (Feldman Barrett & Russell, 1999; Russell, 1980; 2003; Warr, 1990; Warr et al., 2014). The four well-being types taken into consideration, in line with the study of Bakker and Oerlemans (2011), are workaholism, work engagement, exhaustion, and job satisfaction. The study is based on how these four types of work-related affective well-being relate to business performance and answers part of the overarching research question as it focuses on the relationship of well-being and business performance. This study measures performance by self-reported financial parameters (turnover, profit, number of employees), which leads to the following research question:

Research question 4 Which work-related well-being type of entrepreneur achieves best business performance?

The data of Study 1, 2, and 3 are gathered in the first quarter of 2012 and/or in the first quarter of 2014. Measuring at a certain point in time does not give any insight into the effect of business performance on well-being in a longer term. Study 4 is developed to investigate this longitudinal effect, see Chapter 5. The bi-directional relationship between the constructs are measured, using a two-year time interval (2012 and 2014). The research question for this investigation is:

Research question 5 Are well-being and business performance in entrepreneurs bi-directionally related?

The pre-study, and the four papers combined provide insight into the stress and motivational processes for entrepreneurs in The Netherlands, and the way in which they are influenced by job demands and job resources. Furthermore, the effects of these processes on well-being and business success are studied. The next chapter

includes the first study on development and validation of a scale for entrepreneurial job demands. Chapter 3 extends this research by including job resources and investigating the role of both job demands and job resources on work-related strain, well-being, and finally (subjective) business success. A more focussed study into the different types of work-related affective well-being is included in Chapter 4. As previous studies are cross-sectional, Study 4 (Chapter 5) is longitudinal and provides insight into the bi-directional relationship between well-being and business success. The thesis is completed with a general discussion in Chapter 6.

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Chapter Two

DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF THE ENTREPRENEURIAL JOB DEMANDS SCALE

2

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“Being an entrepreneur for a few years I am aware that being a business owner, demands other things from me than working in a paid job. In running my business, I need to do many other things, which feels challenging at times. I did not realize this beforehand.”

Lotje van der Heijden, owner 'VitaMobiel'

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to develop and validate a scale for measuring specific entrepreneurial job demands, over and above regular job demands as stated in research question 2. With the scale for entrepreneurial job demands the results would show whether there are distinct dimensions of specific demands. This is done by including the items made up of the outcomes from a qualitative pre-study, see Appendix A, in the questionnaire. Scale content was based on extant literature search and interviews with ten entrepreneurs. Based on this information 14 items were developed. The factor structure, reliability and construct validity of the scale were examined in a sample of 291 entrepreneurs in The Netherlands. Findings demonstrate that the scale captured three dimensions of entrepreneurial job demands: 'time demands' (5 items), 'uncertainty & risk' (6 items), and 'responsibility' (3 items). The Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale (EJDS) showed criterion validity in explaining work-related strain (positive relationship), and well-being (negative relationship) in a sample of 277 entrepreneurs over and above regular measures of job demands, e.g. emotional load, quantitative workload and task complexity. The conclusion is that including specific demands does seem to add to the explanation of work-related strain and well-being in entrepreneurs. The EJDS can be used as a tool for entrepreneurs, job coaches, and government institutions that want to monitor potential risk factors for strain, well-being and business success in entrepreneurs.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurial job demands, Entrepreneurial stress, Entrepreneurial well-being, Entrepreneurial strain

Introduction

Entrepreneurship is a very important societal topic. The government, educational institutions, and trade organisations actively try to stimulate economic development through providing positive information on entrepreneurship. Indeed, successful entrepreneurship is of major importance in driving economic development through employment creation, innovation, and growth (e.g. Carree & Thurik, 2003; Van Praag & Versloot, 2007a). The importance of entrepreneurs in the economy is undisputed (e.g. Carree & Thurik, 2003; Van Praag & Versloot, 2007a; 2007b; 2008), which makes it very important to find the causes of entrepreneurial work-related strain, as strain may obstruct economic functioning. The demands of entrepreneurship are the primary candidate when causes of such strain are concerned (i.e. Boyd & Begley, 1987). By developing a measurement scale, the level of entrepreneurial job demands can be assessed and intervention programs developed that might assist entrepreneurs and policy makers in signaling risks for and reducing negative effects of work-related

strain. The word ‘demands’ in this context refer to “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 296). Such a measure is developed in this paper.

Regarding the causes of work-related strain there are general job demands, i.e. demands that occur in many occupations. However, there are also job demands that are specific to certain occupations (Hurrell et al., 1998; Sparks & Cooper, 1999). For example, Hakanen et al. (2006) identified in a study among 2,000 Finnish teachers specific job demands such as ‘disruptive pupil behaviors’. For the occupation of nurses specific demands were also found, like emotional demands with regard to death, illness and aggressive patients (Van der Heijden et al., 2008). As entrepreneurs have a job with specific tasks and responsibilities, such as searching and recognizing business opportunities, acquiring resources, and creating new products or services (i.e. Douglas & Shepherd, 2000; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Patzelt & Shepherd, 2011; Shane, 2012) we assume that specific job demands exist for entrepreneurs. For example, we expect entrepreneurship to be characterised by high levels of uncertainty, change, responsibility and income uncertainty (i.e. Boyd & Gumpert, 1983; Boyd & Begley, 1987; Covin & Slevin, 1991; Douglas & Shepherd, 2000). Being an entrepreneur encompasses demands which are different from demands associated with having a paid job. We aim to contribute to knowledge in this field by studying the impacts of both regular job demands and more specific entrepreneurial job demands.

Regular employee job demands include for example work pressure, task complexity, task conflicts, physical demands, cognitive demands, and emotionally demanding interactions with clients (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). The difference between entrepreneurs and employees is that entrepreneurs own a private business (with or without employees) and carry the full responsibility for success and failure of their enterprise. Running a business is demanding and possibly stressful because of the uncertainty and risk involved (e.g., Boyd & Begley, 1987). Entrepreneurs share certain job demands with employees, but they may also be faced with specific job demands. This study compares the impact of regular employee job demands and specific entrepreneurial job demands on work-related strain and well-being. Few empirical studies have previously focused specifically on entrepreneurial job demands (Boyd & Begley, 1987; Rahim, 1996; Harris et al., 1999; Tetrick et al., 2000). Some studies examined the differences between entrepreneurs and managers (Buttner, 1992; Rahim, 1996; Tetrick, et al., 2000), others the moderators of stress and strain (Rahim, 1996; Tetrick et al., 2000) on entrepreneurs and managers or causes of stress in entrepreneurs (Boyd & Gumpert, 1983; Harris et al., 1999; Wincent & Örtqvist, 2009). In these studies job demands were always assessed by instruments

that were originally developed for employees. A specific measure of entrepreneurial job demands is lacking. In order to determine the scope of specific entrepreneurial job demands important literature sources were scanned (i.e. Boyd & Begley, 1987, Rahim, 1996, Harris et al., 1999) and a series of interviews was completed with ten entrepreneurs different in company size, age, gender and sector. The information from this preparation stage is used as the base for developing a questionnaire measure of specific entrepreneurial job demands.

The contribution of the scale developed in this paper is that it identifies specific job demands for entrepreneurs, measures these in a reliable and valid way, and adds to explaining variance in work-related strain and well-being for entrepreneurs, over and above what is known based on standard measures of job demands as derived from research in paid jobs.

The paper is structured according to three stages. Stage 1 is a preparation phase, designed to determine the scope of specific entrepreneurial job demands that needs covering in the measurement scale to be constructed. Stage 2 was aimed at developing and testing the actual Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale. The sample of 291 respondents used for this purpose included individuals who founded or owned a private company (older than one year) employing less than 250 people in The Netherlands. The aim of Stage 3 was to assess the criterion validity of the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale in relation to work-related strain and well-being, controlling for standard job demands measures like emotional load, quantitative workload, and task complexity. Of the 291 respondents in Stage 2 a total of 277 entrepreneurs also completed all the scales necessary for this analysis. A general discussion concludes the paper.

STAGE ONE: PREPARATION PHASE

In this stage the aim was to determine the scope of specific entrepreneurial job demands to be measured.

Procedure

In addition to exploring literature on entrepreneurial job demands (i.e. Boyd & Begley, 1987, Rahim, 1996, Harris et al., 1999; Wincent & Örtqvist, 2009) conversations were held with ten Dutch entrepreneurs. Questions were asked on how employee demands differed from entrepreneurial demands. All respondents had been employed as a regular employee before becoming an entrepreneur and were therefore able to compare employee versus entrepreneurial job demands. The sample of entrepreneurs reflected variations in company size, gender of the entrepreneur, enterprise with/without business partners, and branche of industry. The purpose of the preparation

phase was to identify specific job demand types and to use this information to develop items for the questionnaire.

Results and discussion

Specific entrepreneurial demands different from regular employee job demands were mainly associated with the following areas: '(feelings of) 24/7 availability', '(feelings of) 100 percent commitment', 'broader and larger responsibility', 'tolerance of and coping with uncertainty', as well as 'risk-bearing and courage'. Other demands mentioned were: 'work-life imbalance' (work overload), 'multitude of tasks and roles' (role ambiguity), 'discipline and self-management', and 'development of vision and market orientation'. From these conversations a picture emerged of which demands were distinctive for entrepreneurship, with most demands mentioned boiling down to quantitative and emotional job demands types, and less so to mental and/or physical job demands. This is in line with the results of Andersson (2008) and Stephan and Roesler (2010). Andersson (2008) found that self-employed were less likely to perceive their jobs as mentally straining. Stephan and Roesler (2010) concluded that entrepreneurs showed lower overall physical problems.

Based on the literature and conversations, four dimensions of specific entrepreneurial demands emerged: (feelings) of 24/7 availability and total commitment, broader and larger responsibility, tolerance of and coping with uncertainty, and risk-bearing and courage.

STAGE TWO: SCALE CONSTRUCTION AND PSYCHOMETRIC TEST

Based on the information from the preparation stage, 15 items were formulated in Dutch which reflected these four dimensions. A 4-point answering scale was used for all items (0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, 3=always) in line with van Veldhoven et al. (2002), a commonly used scale for measuring job demands in The Netherlands. Using a frequency-related 4-point response format is common when measuring job demands. The idea behind this response format is that it allows respondents to assess exposure to demands levels better than for example an agreement/disagreement scale (Dewe, 1991).

Next, the draft list of items was critically reviewed by four entrepreneurs (not previously interviewed) with regard to item clarity. This led to small adaptations of some of the items. The final draft of the scale is presented in Table 1. The next aim of Stage 2 was to test the psychometric quality of the drafted Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale.

Table 1: Items, means, standard deviations, Cronbach's alphas, and factor loadings of the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale (N=291)

Item wording	M	SD	α	1	2	3	Factor
<i>Entrepreneurial job demands</i>							
<i>Time demands</i>							
1. Does it feel as if you have to be within reach for your company 24 hours a day?	1.08	.992	.86	.850			
2. Does it feel as if you have to be available for your company 24 hours a day?	1.01	.965		.869			
3. Is it as if your company is in your mind 24 hours a day?	1.42	.959		.838			
4. Is it as if you are busy with your company 24 hours a day?	1.32	.927		.842			
5. Does it feel as if you can only be successful if you dedicate yourself to your company for 100%?	1.52	.977		.541			
<i>Uncertainty & risk</i>							
6. Do you find it difficult to cope with uncertainty about the functioning of the company?	1.02	.656	.76		.724		
7. Do you find it difficult to cope with uncertainty about the functioning of yourself as entrepreneur?	0.95	.633			.775		
8. Do you find it hard to take the initiative to lead your company on the right track?	0.65	.616			.714		
9. Do you find it hard to make decisions for your company?	0.60	.562			.665		
10. Do you find it hard to handle risks concerning your company?	0.90	.605			.559		
11. Do you find it hard to go for 100% for your company?	0.72	.702			.561		
<i>Responsibility</i>							
12. Do you feel yourself 100% responsible for the functioning of your company?	2.50	.666	.67				.848
13. Do you feel yourself 100% responsible for the satisfaction of the customers of your company?	2.48	.656					.850
14. Does the failure of your company feel like your personal failure?	1.73	.931					.609

Note: Factor loadings $\geq .40$ are shown. Items were translated in English.

Details on the sample are presented first and next results on the factorial structure and reliability are reported.

Procedure and participants

Respondents filled in an online, structured questionnaire in Dutch. The sample included individuals who founded or owned a private company (older than one year) employing less than 250 people in The Netherlands. This follows the definition of Van Praag & Versloot (2007a; 2007b) of entrepreneurs, and the definition of the European Commission on small and medium sized enterprises. The questionnaires were filled in between January and March 2012. As entrepreneurs have high self-awareness, self-report is a good method for data collection in this context (Rhee & White, 2007). To get a large amount of respondents, the first authors' own network of entrepreneurs was invited directly by mail to participate. This network consists of business partners all over the country, in various branches of industry. In addition, the url of the questionnaire was sent to trade magazines, several organizations targeted at entrepreneurs (like a regional office of the Chamber of Commerce), and LinkedIn Groups. On 31 March 2012 a total of 850 initial respondents were registered of which 446 opened the questionnaire without answering a single question. A total of 404 respondents filled in questions about background information, and out of this number 83 respondents stopped after this set of questions. It took around 20 to 30 minutes to complete the full survey.

The main reason for people to stop filling in questions is that it was considered time consuming, as our questionnaire contained many other scales besides the one measuring entrepreneurial job demands. Of the 321 remaining respondents, 291 entrepreneurs filled in all the questions about entrepreneurial job demands. These are used for further analyses. This number amounts to 72 percent of those actually responding to the invitation to fill in the survey. Since data was gathered in two ways, it was first examined at the item level whether there were differences in background and company information, and in the means of the scores on the items between respondents from the personal network and respondents acquired through announcements by the Chamber of Commerce, et cetera. Since differences were found to be negligible, it was decided that the groups could be merged.

The sample of 291 entrepreneurs was representative for the total population of Dutch entrepreneurs, except for gender. Contrary to the total Dutch population of entrepreneurs (67-70% male, 30-33% female; <http://statline.cbs.nl/>) the sample had a more equal representation of male and female entrepreneurs (46% male, 54% female). Participants were on average 47 years old ($SD=9.83$) which is comparable to 45 years in the total Dutch population of entrepreneurs. Around 32% is having the company for more than 10 years, 20% less than 3 years, 23% between 3 and 5 years, and

25% between 6 and 10 years. 63% of the respondents was self-employed (without employees), slightly lower than the 68% in the total Dutch population of entrepreneurs. More than 81% holds at least a bachelor's degree, and the scope of activities is 5% local, 30% regional, 42% national, and 23% international. The entrepreneurs in this research were largely active in the secondary sector (69%), 23% were in the tertiary sector and only 8% in the primary sector. This is less representative for the Dutch situation with 55% in the secondary sector (trade, transport, services, et cetera), 15% in the tertiary sector (education, sports, recreation, et cetera), and 28% in the primary sector (industry, agriculture, building, et cetera). Further descriptive information without reference data is that 94% of the respondents the (co-)founder of the company is, and 76% is the only shareholder or owner. Out of the total sample 40% had a parent who was an entrepreneur. We can conclude that the sample is representative for the Dutch entrepreneurial population.

Results and discussion

Exploratory factor analysis

Principal component factor analysis with Varimax rotation was used to examine the factor structure. Three factors with an Eigenvalue larger than 1 emerged. Loadings $> .40$ are shown in Table 1. Four dimensions were expected based on Stage 1, but factor analysis made clear that 'uncertainty' and 'risk' should be taken together as one dimension. All items except one ('Do you find it hard to delegate or outsource activities concerning your company?'), had high factor loadings on one of the three dimensions of entrepreneurial job demands, but not on the other factors. Together the three factors explain 58.44% of the variance in the 14 remaining items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin values for the 14 items together is .76, exceeding the recommended value of .60.

The first factor, 'time demands', with an Eigenvalue of 3.99 explains 28.47% of the variance. The second factor, 'uncertainty & risk', has an Eigenvalue of 2.56 and explains another 18.29% of the variance. 'Responsibility' explains an additional 11.68% with Eigenvalue of 1.64. Factors 'time demands' and 'uncertainty & risk' have good reliability with Cronbach's alpha reaching .86 and .76 respectively, but a lower value ($< .70$) was found for 'responsibility' (.67).

Intercorrelations of the three factors are low (on average they display a correlation of .20), confirming the distinctiveness of the three dimensions in entrepreneurial job demands (see Table 2).

Stage 1 and 2 have contributed to developing a simple scale for measuring specific entrepreneurial job demands. But is measuring such specific demands worthwhile? The aim of Stage 3 is to investigate the criterion validity of the measure developed, specifically in relation to work-related strain and well-being measures,

Table 2: Correlations and Cronbach's alphas (between brackets on the diagonal) among the entrepreneurial job demands, strain and motivation (N=277)

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<i>Entrepreneurial job demands</i>														
1 Time demands	1.26	0.78	(.86)											
2 Uncertainty & risk	0.82	0.42	.22**	(.76)										
3 Responsibility	2.24	0.59	.30**	.04	(.67)									
<i>Regular job demands</i>														
4 Emotional load	1.35	0.50	.28**	.18**	.18**	(.63)								
5 Quantitative workload	1.05	0.48	.37**	.22**	.11	.27**	(.82)							
6 Task complexity	0.67	0.46	.31**	.37**	-.09	.23**	.34**	(.64)						
<i>Work-related strain</i>														
7 Work-home interference	0.89	0.48	.42**	.29**	.17**	.17**	.46**	.28**	(.67)					
8 Recovery after work	0.81	0.52	.37**	.39**	.22**	.21**	.44**	.24**	.65**	(.84)				
9 Detachment from work	2.59	0.65	.40**	.28**	.03	.08	.35**	.17**	.42**	.50**	(.86)			
<i>Well-being</i>														
10 Satisfaction with Life	3.76	0.77	-.24**	-.31**	-.14*	-.08	-.19**	-.24**	-.30**	-.37**	-.33**	(.86)		
11 Satisfaction with Entrepreneurship	3.51	0.78	-.24**	-.40**	-.03	-.03	-.16**	-.33**	-.15*	-.24**	-.32**	.66**	(.86)	
12 Work engagement	6.28	0.73	.02	-.37**	.04	.06	-.11	-.20**	-.22**	-.28**	-.26**	.27**	.32**	(.90)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
 ** Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

over and above the impact of regular job demands measures as used in employee-based research.

STAGE THREE: TESTING CRITERION VALIDITY

The aim of this stage is to assess the criterion validity of entrepreneurial job demands in relation to work-related strain and well-being at work while controlling for standard job demands like emotional load, quantitative workload, and task complexity that entrepreneurs are also likely to encounter, and which they share with paid employees. These variables are chosen to cover a broad range of job demands as are normally assessed in paid employees. ‘Emotional load’ is taken into account as many regular paid jobs also include elements of dealing with difficult customers, patients, pupils, clients, et cetera. As a measure of mental job demands a scale on ‘task complexity’ is used. The third variable is ‘quantitative workload’. Many previous studies have shown these variables to be experienced as job demands by regular paid workers (e.g., Bakker et al., 2004; Demerouti et al., 2001a). It is assumed that these factors also impact the work-related strain and well-being of entrepreneurs.

The way job demands impact strain and well-being is theorized in the Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands refer to “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs” (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004, p. 296). Examples of job demands for employees that can also be found in entrepreneurship are high work pressure, cognitively difficult tasks, and emotionally demanding interactions with clients (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job demands are the main predictors of negative job strain (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker et al., 2004) undermining well-being.

Hypothesis 1

Regular job demands (i.e., emotional load, quantitative workload, and task complexity) are positively related to work-related strain (i.e., work-home interference, recovery after work, and detachment from work).

Hypothesis 2

Regular job demands (i.e., emotional load, quantitative workload, and task complexity) are negatively related to well-being (i.e., satisfaction with life, satisfaction with entrepreneurship, and work engagement).

Central element in the Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) is the notion that every occupation will have its own specific working conditions and risk factors associated with work-related strain. In previous studies, specific job demands were identified for employees in different occupations. It is therefore assumed that there are specific job demands for entrepreneurs. According to the Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) these entrepreneurial job demands will positively relate to work-related strain and negatively to well-being, over and above the impact of known, regular job demands.

Hypothesis 3

Entrepreneurial job demands (i.e., time demands, uncertainty & risk, and responsibility) have an additional positive relation with work-related strain (i.e., work-home interference, recovery after work, and detachment from work) over and above regular job demands (i.e., emotional load, quantitative workload, and task complexity).

Hypothesis 4

Entrepreneurial job demands (i.e., time demands, uncertainty & risk, and responsibility) have an additional negative relation with well-being (i.e., satisfaction with life, satisfaction with entrepreneurship, and work engagement) over and above regular job demands (i.e., emotional load, quantitative workload, and task complexity).

Procedure and participants

Of the 291 respondents in Stage 2 a total of 277 entrepreneurs filled in all the scales necessary for Stage 3, hence these constitute the N in the subsequent analysis. Given that this subsample is largely similar to the one in Stage 2, the descriptive information is not repeated here.

Measures

All scales used, except those measuring entrepreneurial job demands, are internationally acknowledged scales for assessing the constructs of job demands, work-related strain and well-being. Given that entrepreneurs do not appreciate long survey measures, abbreviated versions of the scales were used. For the regular **job demands** three scales are used. Emotional load (e.g. "Do you have contacts with difficult customers in your work?"; 5 items), quantitative workload (e.g. "Do you have a lot of work to do?"; 6 items), and task complexity (e.g. "Do you find your work as an entrepreneur complicated?" 3 items) were measured by scales developed by Van Veldhoven et al. (2002). All items were answered on a 4-point scale with 0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, 3=always. Previous research demonstrated the validity of these scales (e.g., Sluiter et al., 2003; Van Veldhoven & Broersen, 2003; De Croon et al., 2004; Van Veldhoven et al., 2005;

2014). In this study Cronbach's alpha for these scales was found to be .63, .82, and .64 respectively for the three scales. The relatively low reliability of the scales 'emotional load' and 'task complexity' can be explained by the use of the shortened version of these scales.

Strain was measured by three existing scales. For measuring the balance between work and private life a 3-item scale for measuring 'work-home interference' of Geurts et al. (2005) was used. Validity of this scale is examined in several studies (Wagena & Geurts, 2000; Geurts et al. 2005). In this study Cronbach's alpha of .67 was found for this shortened version of the scale. Responses were given on a 4-point scale with 0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, 3=always. An example question was: "How often does it happen that you are irritable at home because your work is demanding?" For measuring 'recovery after work' a 6-item scale based on van Veldhoven et al. (2002) is used (Van Veldhoven et al., 2002; 2014; Sluiter et al., 2003). The items were answered on a 4-point scale with 0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, 3=always as response options. One of the questions was: "At the end of a working day I am really exhausted." The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .84. The third scale is 'detachment from work' a Dutch translation (Geurts et al., 2009; 2011) of the Recovery Experience Questionnaire (9 items) by Sonnentag & Fritz (2007; Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). Responses were indicated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree. "During the time after work I don't think about work at all" was one of the questions. The Cronbach's alpha was .86.

Well-being was measured by two existing scales. The Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985; Pavot & Diener, 1993; Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Diener et al., 2003) was used for measuring global life satisfaction. This is a 5-point scale with 1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree with e.g. the question "I am satisfied with my life". The scale was adapted to generate in parallel a 'satisfaction with entrepreneurship' scale, using the same 5-point scale. This led to the adaptation of the previous question into "I am satisfied with my entrepreneurship". Both scales had the same Cronbach's alpha (.86). Finally, the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; 2003) was used (7-point scale, 1=never to 7=daily) to measure work engagement. An example question was "At my work, I feel bursting with energy". The Cronbach's alpha was .90.

Results and discussion

Descriptive information and correlations between all scales are reported in Table 2. Significant positive correlations were found between the three dimensions of entrepreneurial job demands and the measures of work-related strain. This is in line with previous studies on the relation between job demands and emotional exhaustion (e.g. Demerouti, et al., 2001b; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Especially 'time demands', and 'uncertainty & risk' (see Table 2) showed moderately high correlations with work-related strain, values ranging between .28 and .42 on the different dimensions of work-related strain (work-home interference, recovery after work, and detachment). 'Responsibility' is unexpectedly scoring considerably lower which may be due the low number of items. From the regular job demands, 'quantitative workload' and 'task complexity' showed positive correlations with all three dimensions of work-related strain. This is in line with a study of Bakker, Demerouti, and Verbeke (2004) who found that job demands (e.g., work pressure and emotional load) were correlating on the exhaustion component of burnout. In the study by Harris et al. (1999) entrepreneurs scored high on work-related strain associated with workload which is confirmed in this study. To a lesser extent 'emotional load' was correlating with two of the three dimensions of work-related strain, namely on 'work-home interference' and 'recovery after work'. According to Bakker & Demerouti (2007) certain job demands, like emotional demands, are prevailing in certain job positions but not in others. For the occupational group of entrepreneurs emotional load is less influencing work-related strain than quantitative workload and task complexity. Hypothesis 1 is therefore confirmed. Among the constructs of work-related strain, the strongest relations are found for the dimensions 'work-home interference' and 'recovery after work'.

The relationship between entrepreneurial job demands and the well-being constructs was found to be mainly negative, especially for the dimension 'uncertainty & risk'. Correlation values of 'uncertainty & risk' range from -.31 with 'satisfaction with life' to -.40 with 'satisfaction with entrepreneurship' and -.37 with 'work engagement'. The consistency of correlations between entrepreneurial job demands and outcomes is higher for work-related strain than for well-being, with the exception of the 'uncertainty & risk' scale. As regards the regular job demands 'quantitative workload' and 'task complexity' show significant negative correlations for well-being, thus confirming hypothesis 2.

To investigate the importance of the three specific entrepreneurial job demands over and above regular job demands as used in research in paid employees, multiple linear regression was performed (see Table 3 for work-related strain and Table 4 for well-being). The three regular job demands (see Table 3) together explain 23%, 21% and 12% of the variance in the strain-related scales 'work-home interference', 'recovery after work', and 'detachment from work' respectively. The regular job demands scale 'quantitative workload' contributes most to the explanation of variance in the work-related strain dimension in step 1.

Adding the entrepreneurial job demands to the multiple linear regression equation in step 2 increases variance explained by 8%, 12%, and 13% for the work-related strain constructs respectively. This change is considerable and significant. The

most influential variable (by far) of the entrepreneurial job demands is ‘time demands’ for ‘work-home interference’ and ‘detachment from work’. For ‘recovery after work’ the most important variable is ‘uncertainty & risk’. After the introduction of the specific entrepreneurial job demands in the model the β scores of the regular job demands decrease. After step 2 the most important predictors of work-related strain are ‘quantitative workload’ for ‘work-home interference’ and ‘recovery after work’ with only a slightly smaller effect for ‘uncertainty & risk’. For ‘detachment from work’ the most important predictor is ‘time demands’. These results confirm hypothesis 3.

Table 3: Linear regression analysis on work-related strain

Variables	Work-home interference		Recovery after work		Detachment from work	
	β	β	β	β	β	β
<i>Regular job demands</i>						
Emotional load	.03	-.04***	.09	.01	-.02	-.07
Quantitative workload	.41***	.33**	.39***	.30***	.33***	.24***
Task complexity	.14*	.06	.09	-.01	.07	-.08
<i>Entrepreneurial job demands</i>						
Time		.24***		.16**		.35***
Uncertainty & risk		.15**		.29***		.20**
Responsibility		.07		.13*		-.11
R2	.23	.31	.21	.33	.12	.25
ΔR2	.23***	.08***	.21***	.13***	.12***	.13***

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Table 4 shows that the three regular job demands explain 7%, 11%, and 6% of the variance in the scales ‘satisfaction with life’, ‘satisfaction with entrepreneurship’, and ‘work engagement’ respectively. These amounts of variance explained are smaller than those for work-related strain (Table 3). The differences in variance explained between the three indicators of well-being are small. The regular job scale ‘task complexity’ contributes most to the variance explained in the different well-being constructs in step 1.

Adding the entrepreneurial job demands to the models increases the variance explained by 10%, 12%, and 13% respectively for the three different indicators of well-being. The specific entrepreneurial job demands have the highest β scores for the

different well-being constructs. The strongest relation, with β of $-.37$, is found between 'uncertainty & risk' and 'work engagement'. It is clear that entrepreneurial engagement and uncertainty are very much connected. After step 2 the most important predictors of well-being is 'uncertainty & risk' on all three scales of well-being. Hypothesis 4 is therefore accepted.

Table 4: Linear regression analysis on well-being

Variables	Satisfaction with life		Satisfaction with entrepr.		Work engagement	
	β	β	β	β	β	β
<i>Regular job demands</i>						
Emotional load	-.01	.05	.06	.11	.13*	.14*
Quantitative workload	-.12	-.06	-.07	-.01	-.08	-.08
Task complexity	-.20**	-.12	-.32***	-.20**	-.20**	-.11
<i>Entrepreneurial job demands</i>						
Time		-.12		-.13*		.12
Uncertainty & risk		-.24**		-.31***		-.37***
Responsibility		-.11		-.01		-.01
R2	.07	.15	.11	.22	.06	.18
ΔR2	.07***	.08***	.11***	.10***	.06**	.12***

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

*** $p < .001$

Discussion

Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale

Our results show that three brief measurement scales can capture the specific demands in entrepreneurial jobs, measuring these with acceptable reliability and validity. Including specific demands does seem to add to the explanation of work-related strain and well-being in entrepreneurs when compared to standard (paid employee-based) measures of job demands. Three factors with an Eigenvalue larger than 1 emerged from our analysis. Intercorrelations of the three factors are low, confirming the distinctiveness of the dimensions postulated. Our results provide support for the existence of specific demands for entrepreneurs and their measurement. The criterion validity of the three scales was investigated, specifically in relation to work-related strain and well-being, over and above the impact of regular job demands ('emotional load', 'quantitative workload', and 'task complexity'). Positive correlations were found between the three dimensions of entrepreneurial job demands and the measures of work-related strain. The relationship between entrepreneurial job demands and the well-being constructs showed negative correlations, especially for the dimension

‘uncertainty & risk’. Multiple linear regression analyses confirmed the strong relations of entrepreneurial job demands with work-related strain and well-being. It is clear from these analyses that the entrepreneurial job demands scales provide additional power for predicting work-related strain and well-being over and above regular job demands measures.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. In the preparation stage the sample ten entrepreneurs interviewed is adequate for the purpose but on the small side. For Stage 3, a subsample of the participants in Stage 2 is used. For validity reasons an independent sample would have been a better choice to develop the scales. The ‘responsibility’ dimension with only three items shows low Cronbach’s alpha. Adding more items to the scale is recommended for future research. In this study entrepreneurs in one single country were investigated, The Netherlands. It is to be recommended to test and analyze the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale in other countries, in order to study the generalizability of the findings reported here on the reliability and validity of the scale, and to examine its cross-cultural stability. Furthermore, convergent validity between the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale and other scales examining entrepreneurial content could be examined. For example, the link with business success (both objective and subjectively measured) would appear to be a relevant criterion measure for such validation.

Conclusions

In this study we determined the scope for specific entrepreneurial job demands that are important alongside regular job demands in explaining work-related strain and well-being in entrepreneurs. These specific entrepreneurial job demands were used to develop a simple, short questionnaire in which entrepreneurs recognize themselves. This is important for response levels in this type of research. The questionnaire is tested as to its psychometric characteristics. Our findings imply that it is advisable in studies of entrepreneurial business success and/or entrepreneurial health and well-being to use our specific scales alongside standard measures of job demands as used in research among paid employees. With these outcomes the second research question of this thesis can be confirmed, which was formulated as: “Can distinct dimensions of specific entrepreneurial job demands be measured reliably, and do such measures show valid correlations with work-related strain and work-related well-being?” Distinct dimensions of entrepreneurial job demands were indeed found which proved to be reliable and valid in relation to work-related strain and work-related well-being.

For future research it is interesting to further compare entrepreneurial job demands between different types of entrepreneurs: for instance between self-

employed professionals versus entrepreneurs with personnel, or between those working with versus without business partners. Further research is also needed in relation to the association found between 'uncertainty & risk' and 'work engagement'. It is concluded based on these results that entrepreneurs may lose engagement through uncertainty and risk. It would also be interesting to learn more about how entrepreneurial job demands interact with resources in the job and the environment (both business-related and private) in their effects on work-related strain, well-being and business success. Policy makers can build on such knowledge by creating or stimulating necessary resources to let entrepreneurs and their business prosper and thus raise economic growth.

In practice, for The Netherlands we can now use the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale as a tool for entrepreneurs themselves, for job coaches, and for government institutions to trace potential risk factors for strain, well-being and business success in entrepreneurs. Based on such results special coaching programs (e.g. on how to deal with uncertainty), training programs (e.g. on time management) and workshops (e.g. on tools for risk analyses) can be developed to help entrepreneurs deal with the specific entrepreneurial demands of 'time demands', 'uncertainty', 'responsibility & risk'. If entrepreneurs are better able to deal with the specific entrepreneurial job demands they have more chances of survival or even business growth.

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Chapter Three

FEELING SUCCESSFUL AS AN ENTREPRENEUR: A DEMANDS-RESOURCES APPROACH

3

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“To do my job as network partner well, I constantly need to be up to date about market developments. Besides following the news, I also visit many network events which I very much like, but which are also very time consuming and therefore heavily effect my spare time. ”

David van Iersel, owner '24U in bedrijf'

Abstract

This cross-sectional study among 277 Dutch entrepreneurs investigates how entrepreneurs' job demands relate to their work-related strain and work engagement, as well as their feelings of subjective success. This research gives insight into the stress and motivational process within the JD-R Model (Chapter 1) and therefore answering the third research question of this thesis: "How does the stress process and motivational process within the JD-R Model work for entrepreneurs in relationship to subjective personal and financial success?"

As such it contributes to the literature firstly by focusing on psychological rather than business outcomes of entrepreneurship, and secondly by contextualizing demands and resources for entrepreneurs, e.g. capturing the general but also the specific factors that are demands and resources in entrepreneurial work. Results of the study show that work-related strain is related to both less personal and less financial subjective business success. Work engagement is related to higher personal, but not financial subjective business success. As predicted by the JD-R Model, both high job demands and low job resources predicted work-related strain. In contrast to findings of other studies, high job demands are not related to low work engagement, only having low job resources did. The practical implication of these findings is that entrepreneurs can achieve an important competitive advantage over other entrepreneurs if they can learn to deal effectively with job demands and work-related strain. The challenge for policy makers is to get more information about how to assist business owners in eliminating and preventing work-related strain in order to achieve higher subjective financial and personal success.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, Business success, Job demands, Job resources, Work-related strain, Work engagement

Introduction

This study extends the existing literature on entrepreneurial success by investigating relationships between job demands and job resources, work-related strain and work engagement on the one hand, and subjective business success among entrepreneurs on the other hand. Previous studies on business success have focused on success indicators such as business growth, and industry or market leadership (Van Praag and Versloot, 2007; Cooper et al., 1994). This popular way of looking at success of enterprises has been criticized over the last decade (i.e. Shane et al., 2003; Walker and Brown, 2004) and financial parameters have been questioned as the primary or only success measure (Kuratko et al., 1997; Reijonen and Komppula, 2007; Walker and Brown, 2004). Entrepreneurs have their own perceptions of what business success means to them (Gorgievski et al., 2011; Simpson et al., 2004; Walker and Brown,

2004). Therefore subjective, non-financial measures like autonomy (Kuratko et al., 1997), personal satisfaction and growth (Walker and Brown, 2004), respect and customer satisfaction (Reijonen and Komppula, 2007), family security (Kuratko et al., 1997; Shane et al., 2003) and flexibility (Walker and Brown, 2004), have been put forward as alternative indicators of business success (Reijonen and Komppula, 2007; Walker and Brown, 2004).

In this study we extend the knowledge on subjective business success by investigating the multiple indicators relating to this construct, and this is the first major contribution of this study to the literature. We define subjective business success as: “criteria that entrepreneurs value and strive for that reflect their individual goals, values and aspirations, which in turn are meaningful for entrepreneurial outcomes” (based on Dej, 2010, p. 95). Subjective business success can be divided into two categories: subjective personal success, which relates to personal development and personal goals of the entrepreneur, and subjective financial success, centered around income and finance (Dej, 2010; 2011). Both are taken into account in this paper.

The theoretical basis of this study on subjective business success is the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R Model; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). This model is commonly used in the literature on work engagement and work-related strain. Work engagement can be viewed as the opposite of work-related strain. Engaged workers “have a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work activities and they see themselves as able to deal well with the demands of their job” (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003, p. 4). Work-related strain “refers to long-term exhaustion from, and diminished interest in, the work we do” (Leiter et al., 2014). A central element of the JD-R Model is the idea that every occupation has its own specific working conditions and risk factors associated with work engagement and work-related strain. Entrepreneurial stress studies have shown that work characteristics that are typically different for entrepreneurs as compared to salaried workers are coping with a high level of uncertainty, responsibility and risks, and a heavy work load (e.g. Collins et al., 2004; Dijkhuizen et al., 2014; Drnovsek et al., 2010; Gorgievski and Laguna, 2008; Tetrick et al., 2000; McClelland, 1965). These indicators can be considered job demands, which directly relate to work-related strain (Wincent et al., 2008). It is therefore not surprising that entrepreneurs overall experience high stress levels (Boyd and Gumpert, 1983; Buttner and Moore, 1997; Harris et al. 1999; Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009b).

We know from previous studies that entrepreneurs on the other hand also have a very high level of work engagement and are more engaged than employees in executing their activities (Smulders, 2006). Work engagement as a motivational concept relates to (harmonious) passion (Gorgievski et al., 2010a; 2010b; Omorede et al., 2014), a prominent concept in the field of entrepreneurship (Cardon et al., 2009;

Locke, 2000). A recent study found that work engagement relates to experiencing more positive affect, which in turn related to more subjective business success (Gorgievski et al., 2014).

It appears that entrepreneurs have high levels of both work-related strain and work engagement. To gain a deeper understanding of this phenomenon, this study investigates what characteristics of the entrepreneurial job drive both work engagement and work-related strain in an integrated manner and additionally, how work engagement and work-related strain influence subjective business success. More insight into these interrelationships will enable us to assist entrepreneurs in coping with work-related strain and work engagement and subsequently business success (e.g. Buttner and Moore, 1997; Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009a; 2009b).

The JD-R Model is suitable to study these factors and interrelationships in an integrated manner. The model (see Figure 1) relates work-related strain as well as work engagement to two categories of work characteristics: job demands and job resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). According to this model, job demands primarily predict work-related strain and job resources primarily influence work engagement. In turn, both work-related strain and work engagement have been shown to predict job performance at another point in time (Bakker and Bal, 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a). Job performance for entrepreneurs is connected to business success, which in this study we aim to explain through work-related strain and work engagement. A recent review study shows that there is ample cross-sectional evidence supporting the JD-R Model for salaried workers (Schaufeli and Taris, 2013). Studies on the occupational group of entrepreneurs are however lacking. Only parts of the model, in specific the relationship between subjective business success, work-related strain and work engagement, have been studied among entrepreneurs (e.g. Boyd and Gumpert, 1983; Dej, 2010; 2011; Gorgievski et al., 2014; Harris et al., 1999; Wincent and Örtqvist 2009a). This study expands this line of research by testing the JD-R Model, including additionally drivers of work-related strain and work engagement. This way, the current study contributes to the knowledge on potential drivers of subjective business success, being job demands and job resources, via work-related strain and work engagement, with potentially interesting implications for interventions.

Job Demands-Resources Model for entrepreneurs

The central assumption in the JD-R Model is that work-related strain develops when (certain) job demands are high and when (certain) job resources are limited, leading to exhaustion and undermining work engagement (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker et al., 2004). In contrast, when job resources are high, the motivational process is activated, leading to work engagement and higher work performance (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Bakker et al., 2004). Among entrepreneurs, different relationships of the JD-R

Model are investigated in various studies. These studies focus on the impact of job demands on work-related strain, job satisfaction and venture performance (Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009a), on the relationship between work engagement and performance (Gorgievski et al., 2010; Gorgievski et al., 2014), or on the relationship between job demands, social support, work-related strain and satisfaction (Tetrick et al., 2000). In the current study, next to regular job demands, such as emotional load, quantitative workload, and task complexity, we also include specific entrepreneurial job demands: time demands; uncertainty and risk; and responsibility (Dijkhuizen et al., 2014). In addition, we also add different job resources, namely autonomy, independence, variety in work, feedback, learning opportunities, and work organization. This means not only an extension of previous research on entrepreneurial stress and performance, but also an extension of the original JD-R Model. Herein lies the second major contribution of our study to the literature.

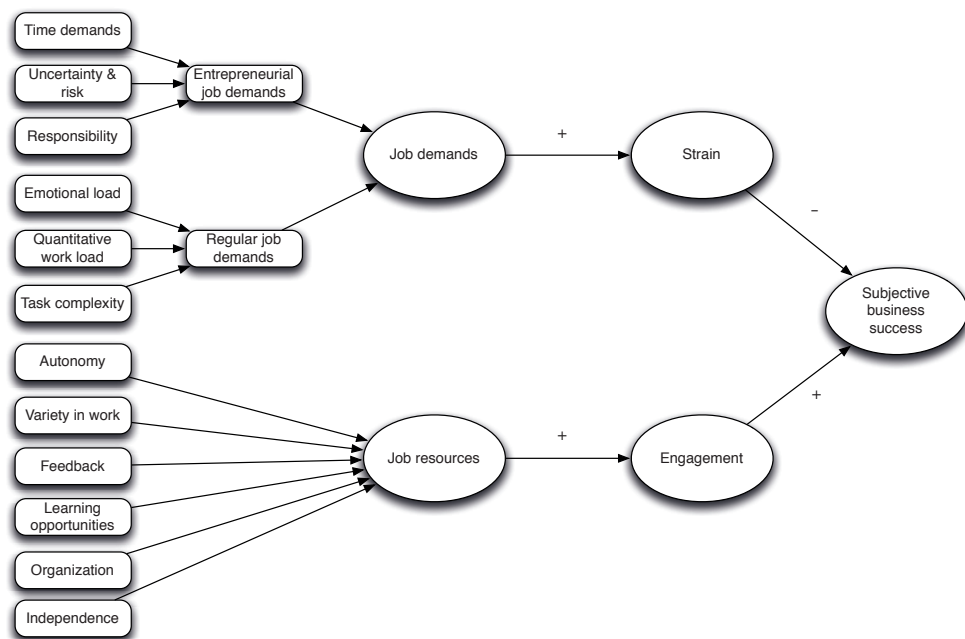


Figure 1: Conceptual model of entrepreneurial work-related strain, work engagement, and subjective business success, based on the Job Demands-Resources Model (cf. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007)

Job demands

Job demands refer to “those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs” (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004, p. 296). Job demands can be categorized in mental, emotional, and physical job demands (e.g. Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2004). In previous studies among salaried workers, the positive relationship between job demands and work-related strain has been confirmed (Schaufeli et al., 2009). In a study by Dijkhuizen et al. (2014) specific entrepreneurial job demands (time demands, uncertainty and risk, responsibility) were identified that characterize the work of entrepreneurs. These specific job demands were found to be better predictors of work-related strain in entrepreneurs than common job demands. We formulated the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1

Entrepreneurial job demands relate positively to work-related strain.

Job resources

Job resources “refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that either/or 1) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; 2) are functional in achieving work goals; 3) stimulate personal growth, learning, and development” (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004, p. 296). Increases in job resources predict work engagement for employed people (e.g. Hakanen et al., 2006; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2009). Examples of job resources are autonomy (e.g. Van Gelderen and Jansen, 2006; Sexton and Bowman, 1985), performance feedback, skill variety, decision involvement, and learning opportunities (Bakker and Demerouti, 2008; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Hence, Hypothesis 2 is:

Hypothesis 2

Entrepreneurial job resources relate positively to work engagement.

Work-related strain and subjective business success

According to the JD-R Model, a high level of work-related strain would lead to lower performance (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2004), thus lower success rates for entrepreneurs. There are a number of studies on work-related strain of entrepreneurs. A comparative study between small business owners and employed people shows that the self-employed have a higher overall strain, higher stress levels (Boyd and Gumpert, 1983; Harris et al., 1999), emotional exhaustion, and lack of accomplishment (Jamal, 2007). However, Tetrick et al. (2000) found that business

owners perceive less emotional exhaustion than non-owners. This is in line with the study by Andersson (2008) who found that self-employed were less likely to perceive their work as mentally straining. Studies on the relationship between work-related strain and subjective business success for entrepreneurs are lacking. According to the JD-R Model we can, however, propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a

Entrepreneurial work-related strain relates negatively to subjective financial and personal success.

Hypothesis 3b

Entrepreneurial work-related strain mediates the negative link between job demands and subjective financial and personal success.

Work engagement and subjective business success

One of the main drivers for subjective success in different occupations is work engagement (e.g. Bakker and Bal, 2010; Gorgievski et al., 2010a). Schaufeli et al. (2002, p. 74) define engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption”. Employed workers have “a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work activities” (Schaufeli and Salanova, 2006). In other words, “engaged individuals work hard (vigor), are involved (dedicated) and feel happily engrossed (absorbed) in their work” (Bakker et al., 2008; p. 190). Entrepreneurs score higher on work engagement than employed people (Smulders, 2006). Different studies confirm the positive relationship between work engagement and subjective success in the case of entrepreneurs (Gorgievski et al., 2010a). A recent study among Spanish entrepreneurs revealed that work engagement relates positively to subjective business success (Gorgievski et al., 2014). This finding is in line with the JD-R Model suggesting a positive relationship between work engagement and performance. For the current study we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 4a

Entrepreneurial work engagement relates positively to subjective financial and personal success.

Hypothesis 4b

Entrepreneurial work engagement mediates a positive link between job resources and subjective financial and personal success.

Methodology

Procedure and participants

This is a quantitative study. Respondents filled in an online questionnaire in Dutch. Only individuals who founded or owned a private company (older than one year) employing less than 250 people in The Netherlands, were invited. This is in line with the European Commission that defines small and medium sized enterprises as companies employing less than 250 people. In the demarcation of entrepreneurs we follow the definition by Van Praag and Versloot (2007) namely “individuals who have started up a business or who own a business, i.e., who are self-employed or the owner-manager of an incorporated business, as entrepreneurs too”.

To find respondents, the network of the first author was approached directly by mail. Furthermore, the URL of the questionnaire was sent to several magazines that have a readership of Dutch entrepreneurs, and also to different LinkedIn Groups related to entrepreneurship. Analyses show the way respondents were approached did not significantly influence results: there were no differences concerning demographics or scores on any relevant variables. Therefore, respondents were treated as one group of participants. At the closure of the data collection period, a total of 850 respondents were registered of whom 446 opened the questionnaire without answering a single question. Another 83 respondents stopped after the set of questions about background information. We assume that the main reason for people to stop filling in questions is the time-consuming aspect of the questionnaire. It took around 20 to 30 minutes to complete. Of the 321 remaining respondents, a number of 277 filled in all the questions. The final response rate is therefore 33%.

The demographics of the sample of 277 participants were similar to the demographics of the population of Dutch entrepreneurs, except for gender. Compared to the population of Dutch entrepreneurs (67-70% male, 30-33% female) the sample showed a more equal representation of male and female owners (47% male, 53% female). Participants were on average 47 years ($SD=9.80$), with 32% having the company for more than 10 years (19% less than 3 years, 23% between 3 and 5 years, and 26% between 6 and 10 years). Of the respondents, 62% was self-employed (without employees), and the scope of activities was 5% local, 31% regional, 42% national, and 23% international. Of the respondents, almost 94% was the (co-)founder of the company, and 75% the only shareholder or owner.

Measures

Job demands

We follow Dijkhuizen et al. (2014), who - based on literature and interviews with entrepreneurs - identified six job demands that are relevant for entrepreneurs. These six job demands were assessed by six validated scales (see Table 1 for alpha reliability

coefficients and Average Variance Extracted of the scales). The first three scales were specifically developed for entrepreneurs (Dijkhuizen et al., 2014) and the other three general scales are applicable to all who work. The first job demand scale is 'time demands', assessed with 5 items, such as 'Does it feel as if you have to be available for your company 24 hours a day?' The second scale is 'uncertainty & risk', measured by 6 items, for example 'Do you find it hard to handle risks concerning your company?' The third scale is 'responsibility', measured by 3 items, such as 'Do you feel yourself 100% responsible for the satisfaction of the customers of your company?' The three regular job demands scales are derived from the Dutch Questionnaire on the Experience and Assessment of Work, known by its Dutch initials as the VBBA (Van Veldhoven et al., 2002; 2005; 2014). These three scales are: 'emotional load' (4 items; such as 'Does your work demand a lot from you emotionally?'), 'quantitative workload' (6 items; e.g., 'Do you have too much work to do?'), and 'task complexity' (3 items; e.g., 'Do you find your work as an entrepreneur complicated?'). Responses were scored on a 4-point scale ranging from 0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, to 3=always.

Job resources

Job resources were measured using six scales. One scale, 'entrepreneurial autonomy', was specifically developed for the purpose of this study using 7 items, such as "Can you decide how your company is executing activities?". The other scales were again taken from the standardized VBBA (Dutch Questionnaire on the Experience and Assessment of Work; Van Veldhoven et al., 2002; 2014): 'independence' (4 items; e.g., 'Can you organise your work yourself?'), 'variety in work' (4 items; e.g., 'Is your work varied?'), 'feedback' (4 items; e.g. 'Do you receive sufficient information on your work as an entrepreneur?'), 'learning opportunities' (4 items; e.g., 'Do you learn new things in your work?'), and 'work organization' (6 items; e.g., 'Are you hindered in your work by unexpected situations?'). Responses on the six subscales were collected using a 4-point scale ranging from 0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, to 3=always.

Work-related strain

Work-related strain was measured by three existing scales, following the advice by Sparks and Cooper (1999) who investigated differences between occupations. For measuring the balance between work and private life the 6-item scale for 'work-home interference' of Geurts et al. (2005) is used, e.g., 'How often does it happen that you are irritable at home because your work is demanding?' Responses were given on a 4-point scale with 0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, 3=always. For measuring 'recovery after work' the 6-item scale of Van Veldhoven et al. (2002; 2014) is applied, e.g. 'I find it difficult to relax at the end of a working day'. The items were answered on a 4-point scale with 0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, 3=always. The third scale is 'detachment

from work' (9 items; e.g., 'During the time after work I get a break from the demands of work') based on the VBBA as well as the Dutch translation (Geurts et al., 2009) of the Recovery Experience Questionnaire of Sonnentag & Fritz (2007). Responses were indicated on a 5-point scale with 1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree.

Work engagement

Work engagement was measured with the nine item version of the Dutch Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). The items are answered on a 7-point scale, 1=never to 7=daily. An example item is 'I am enthusiastic about my job'.

Subjective success

This construct was measured using the Subjective Entrepreneurial Success Scale (Dej, 2010; 2011). The scale uses a 5-point scale running from 1=totally not achieved to 5=totally achieved. It consists of six subscales measuring two underlying factors. The first factor is subjective financial success consisting of the subscales: 'personal finance' (5 items, e.g., 'Rise of (family) income'), and 'business finance' (5 items, e.g., 'Turnover'). This measure relates strongly to objective financial measures such as turnover (growth), profit (growth) and (growth of) number of employees. The second factor is subjective personal success and consists of the subscales: 'social factors' (6 items, e.g., 'social recognition'), 'relation to customers' (3 items, e.g., 'customer loyalty'), 'personal goals' (5 items, e.g., 'To maintain personal relations and networks'), and 'personal development' (3 items, e.g., 'Develop yourself personally').

Control variables

Control variables taken into account were gender, education, age of the entrepreneur, age of the company, and entrepreneurs with/without employees (Dej, 2010; Buttner and Moore, 1997; Walker and Brown, 2004).

Method

Data was analysed using structural equations modelling in SmartPLS (Hair et al., 2014). Standardized variables were analysed in a bootstrapping procedure using 5,000 samples of 277 cases. SmartPLS uses a variances based partial least squares approach. Similar to other structural equation modeling programs, PLS accounts for measurement error and therefore provides more accurate estimates of effects than ordinary regression analyses (Chin, 1998). SmartPLS has advantages over other path modelling programmes that use a covariance based structural equation modelling approach (such as AMOS, EQS, and Lisrel), in case of a small datafile. Moreover, both formative and reflective variables and a large number of indicators and relationships

can be modeled, which is relevant for the current study. Additionally, it is well suited to investigate mediation effects, because of its bootstrapping approach.

Table 1
Means, standard deviations, alpha reliability coefficient, Average Variance Extracted (between brackets on the diagonal) and correlation coefficients between the raw study variables (N=277).

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
<i>Control variables: age, company, education, gender</i>																								
<i>Job demands</i>																								
1 Time demands		1.26	0.78																					
2 Uncertainty & risk		0.82	0.42	.22**																				
3 Responsibility		2.24	0.59	.30**	.04																			
4 Emotional load		1.35	0.50	.28**	.18**	.18**																		
5 Quantitative workl.		1.05	0.48	.37**	.22**	.11	.27**																	
6 Task complexity		0.67	0.46	.31**	.37**	-.09	.23**	.34**																
<i>Job resources</i>																								
7 Autonomy		2.68	0.44	-.12*	-.23**	.21**	.05	-.17**	-.31**															
8 Independence		2.64	0.45	-.15*	-.10	.13*	.09	-.22**	-.22**	.48**														
9 Variety in work		2.46	0.48	-.01	-.20**	.15*	.17**	-.01	-.02	.14*	.25**													
10 Feedback		1.96	0.67	-.16**	-.25**	-.02	.02	-.17**	-.21**	.20**	.11	.17**												
11 Learning		2.36	0.50	-.06	-.26**	.07	.09	-.04	-.13*	.25**	.25**	.57**	.29**											
12 Work organization		1.78	0.42	-.16**	-.21**	-.03	-.27**	-.41**	-.24**	.13*	.22**	-.02	.08	.08										
<i>Work-related strain</i>																								
13 Work-home interf.		0.89	0.48	.42**	.29**	.17**	.17**	.46**	.28**	-.20**	-.23**	-.22**	-.16**	-.23**	-.17**									
14 Recovery		0.81	0.52	.37**	.39**	.22**	.21**	.44**	.24**	-.15*	-.19**	-.13*	-.17**	-.18**	-.28**	.65**								
15 Detachment work		2.59	0.65	.40**	.28**	.03	.08	.35**	.17**	-.19**	-.23**	-.05	-.21**	-.11	-.31**	.42**	.50**							
<i>Work engagement</i>																								
16 Work engagement		6.28	0.73	.02	-.37**	.04	.06	-.11	-.20**	.24**	.24**	.27**	.33**	.36**	.24**	-.22**	-.28**	-.26**						
<i>Subjective success</i>																								
17 Social factors		3.45	0.75	-.06	-.18**	-.08	.09	.10	-.04	.07	.09	.28**	.15*	.34**	.03	-.18**	-.09	-.10	.20**					
18 Relation customers		4.22	0.68	-.15*	-.25**	.08	-.01	-.09	-.20**	.27**	.16**	.29**	.17**	.32**	.03	-.18**	-.19**	-.20**	.23**	.35**				
19 Personal goals		3.84	0.70	-.36**	-.22**	-.06	-.17**	-.36**	-.26**	.28**	.19**	.07	.14*	.17**	.19**	-.35**	-.36**	-.42**	.10	.20**	.33**			
20 Personal developm		4.17	0.69	-.21**	-.25**	.00	.04	-.10	-.18**	.30**	.15*	.29**	.24**	.49**	.07	-.26**	-.24**	-.18**	.29**	.41**	.31**	.47**		
21 Personal finance		2.87	1.10	-.15*	-.21**	-.03	-.00	.05	-.09	-.07	-.04	-.04	.19**	-.00	-.07	-.16**	.08	-.13*	.06	.16**	.23**	.14*	.17**	
22 Business finance		3.00	1.07	-.13*	-.23**	-.01	-.10	.10	-.16**	.05	-.04	-.10	.17**	.02	-.08	-.08	-.07	-.11	.09	.18**	.32**	.13*	.17**	
																							.65**	(.89/.46)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Results

Descriptive findings

Table 1 shows means, standard deviations and correlation coefficients of the study variables. As this table shows, work engagement levels are quite high in this sample. It compares to results in other entrepreneurs' samples (Gorgievski et al., 2010a; Smulders, 2006), but is higher than results for non-entrepreneurs samples (Gorgievski et al., 2010a; Smulders, 2006). Job demands are interrelated, although the correlations are not particularly strong, as is often observed for formative factors. Job resources show somewhat stronger interrelationships. Both job demands and job resources appear to be related to work-related strain, and job resources but not job demands are related to work engagement. Subjective business success relates to work engagement, work-related strain and job resources, and somewhat less strongly to job demands.

Measurement Model

First, the quality of the measurement model needs to be assessed before the structural path model can be evaluated. The variables job demands and job resources were modelled as formative latent constructs. Scale scores of the six job demands and six job resources were used as observed indicators, as was advised by Cenfetelli and Bassellier (2009) to ensure a good coverage of the entire construct without running into the problem of the inherent limitation of the number of possible indicators. There were no collinearity problems with the indicators. Tolerance values ranged between .62 for 'learning opportunities' and .94 for 'organization of the work'. VIF scores ranged between 1.08 for 'organization of the work' and 1.62 for 'learning opportunities'. Concerning specific entrepreneurial job demands, the most important indicators were 'uncertainty and risk' with a significant factor weight of $\omega = .68$ ($SE = 0.30$, $T = 2.28$, $p < .05$) and 'quantitative workload' ($\omega = .44$, $SE = 0.22$, $T = 1.96$, $p < .05$). The indicator 'time demands' ($\omega = .26$, $SE = 0.23$, $T = 1.74$, $p < .10$) had no significant factor weight, indicating it did not explain additional unique variance in job demands over and above the two job demands previously mentioned, but did have a significant factor loading ($\gamma = .55$, $SE = .25$, $T = 2.15$, $p < .05$), which indicates its relevance for the construct. Finally, 'task complexity', 'responsibility' and 'emotional load' had no significant weights nor loadings (see Table 2), but were nonetheless retained, based on theoretical grounds to ensure a more complete coverage of the construct.

Concerning job resources, the strongest indicators were 'work organization' and 'feedback' followed by 'learning opportunities', 'entrepreneurial autonomy', 'variety in work' and 'independence'. The factor weights of 'variety in work' and 'independence' were not significant (see Table 2), but the factor loadings were all highly significant, indicating the relevance of all indicators for the total construct. Concerning the reflective indicators (work-related strain, work engagement, subjective

financial success and subjective personal success) results were satisfactory. Most outer loadings were above .70 and all were well above .40. Additionally, as Table 1 shows, all AVE's were above the recommended .50 and the square roots of all AVE's were well above the highest correlation, indicating good convergent and discriminant validity.

Table 2 *Factor loadings and factor weights*

	factor weight (ω)	factor loading (γ)
<i>Job demands</i>		
1 Time demands (c1)	.26	.55**
2 Uncertainty and risk (c2)	.68*	.81**
3 Responsibility (c3)	.09	.19
4 Emotional load	-.25	.08
5 Quantitative workload	.44*	.64**
6 Task complexity	.04	.46
<i>Job resources</i>		
7 Autonomy	.23*	.54***
8 Independence	.18	.55***
9 Variety in work	.19	.48***
10 Feedback	.40**	.61***
11 Learning	.26*	.63***
12 Organization	.47**	.59***

Results of the structural model

Finally, the test of the structural model, which controlled for business owners gender, education and age as well as the age of the company, showed the following (see also Figure 2). First, as predicted by Hypothesis 1, entrepreneurial job demands did indeed relate positively to work-related strain ($\rho = 0.51$, $SE = 0.17$, $T = 2.94$, $p < .01$). In addition, lack of resources predicted work-related strain as well. In total, the JD-R Model predicted 41% of variance in work-related strain. In line with Hypothesis 2, entrepreneurial job resources related positively to work engagement ($\rho = 0.48$, $SE = 0.05$, $T = 10.67$, $p < .001$), explaining 26% of the variance.

Additionally, entrepreneurial work-related strain significantly predicted both subjective personal success ($\rho = -.42$, $SE = 0.06$, $T = 7.17$, $p < .001$) and subjective financial success ($\rho = -.19$, $SE = 0.07$, $T = 2.48$, $p < .05$), thus fully supporting Hypothesis 3a.

As concerns an indirect effect of job demands on subjective success through work-related strain (Hypothesis 3b), the total effects estimates show that job demands significantly predict subjective personal success ($\rho = -0.22$, $SE = 0.08$; $T = 2.70$, $p < .05$), and subjective financial success ($\rho = -0.10$, $SE = 0.05$; $T = 2.14$, $p < .05$) through work-related strain. Sobel tests statistics were 2.18 ($p < .05$) and 276 ($p < .01$) respectively. Thus Hypothesis 3b was supported for both subjective financial and personal success.

In contrast to expectations, entrepreneurs' work engagement did not predict subjective financial success, only subjective personal success ($\rho = 0.14$, $SE = 0.06$, $T = 2.26$, $p < .05$). So, Hypothesis 4a was only partially supported. The JD-R Model predicted 11% of variance in subjective financial success, and 27% of variance in subjective personal success.

Job resources indirectly predicted both subjective financial and personal business success significantly ($\rho = 0.04$, $SE = 0.02$, $T = 2.31$, $p < .05$, and $\rho = 0.16$, $SE = 0.03$, $T = 4.70$, $p < .01$ respectively). Partially supporting Hypothesis 4b the relationship between job resources and subjective personal success was mediated by work engagement. A Sobel test showed a Sobel test statistic of 2.27 ($p < .05$). Additional, exploratory analyses showed this relationship between job resources and subjective success was mediated by work-related strain for both subjective financial success (Sobel test statistic of 2.57, $p < .01$) and subjective personal success (Sobel test statistic of 373, $p < .001$).

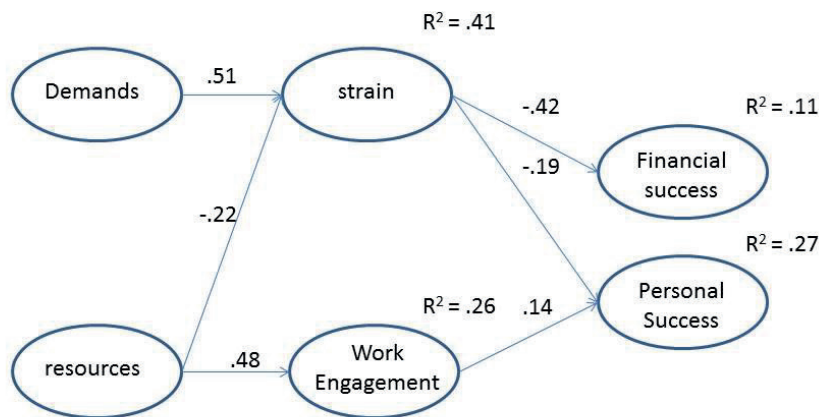


Figure 2 Smart PLS outcome corrected for age and age of the company, gender, education

Discussion

This study among 277 entrepreneurs investigated the relationships between job demands and job resources and business owners' subjective financial and personal success, based on the Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Most of the hypotheses were confirmed.

First, in line with other studies (e.g. Crawford et al., 2010; Bakker et al., 2004), results of Smart PLS analyses indicated that job demands related positively to work-related strain, therefore confirming Hypothesis 1. The strongest indicators of the latent variable job demands were 'uncertainty and risk', 'time demands' and 'quantitative workload'. This means that the feeling of uncertainty, time pressure, the feeling of 24/7 presence, not being able to shut the door after 5 o'clock, and the amount of work, press heavily on work-related strain. Two dimensions of job demands, 'responsibility' and 'emotional load', hardly played a role as indicators of the latent factor 'job demands' for this particular sample. This is in line with the study of Dijkhuizen et al. (2014), and Wincent and Örtqvist (2009a).

The expected positive relationship between job resources and work engagement was also confirmed, supporting Hypothesis 2. This is in line with many other studies, such as those from Mauno et al. (2007), and Hakanen et al. (2008). The strongest job resource indicators were 'work organization' and 'feedback' followed by 'learning opportunities', 'autonomy', 'variety in work' and 'independence'. Similar results were found in the meta-analysis of Halbesleben (2010) which showed that autonomy, social support and performance feedback are among the most important predictors of work engagement. Additionally, opportunities for professional development, 'learning opportunities', have been found to be important antecedents of work engagement as well (e.g. Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Bakker and Bal, 2010).

Regarding the determinants of subjective success, we found a direct, significant relation between work-related strain and both subjective personal success and subjective financial success, thus fully supporting Hypothesis 3a. Moreover, a significant indirect effect was found for job demands on both experienced financial and personal success through work-related strain (confirming Hypothesis 3b), which indicates that high job demands are indirectly related to business owners' performance.

As concerns work engagement, the relation between work engagement and subjective success was partially confirmed (Hypothesis 4a). However, in contrast to our expectations, entrepreneurs' work engagement only predicted subjective personal success, not subjective financial success, meaning that engaged entrepreneurs did not assess their subjective financial success differently from less engaged entrepreneurs. Partially confirming Hypothesis 4b, the relationship between job resources and subjective personal success, not financial success, was mediated by work engagement.

Apparently, for entrepreneurs, work-related strain has more impact on

subjective personal and financial success than work engagement. This is unexpected, as work engagement was shown to be one of the main drivers for success in different types of paid jobs (e.g. Salanova et al., 2005; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009b; Bakker et al., 2004). Our results also contradict meta-analyses showing the impact of work engagement on performance in general to be stronger than the unfavorable impact of work-related strain (Demerouti et al., 2014). How could we explain that this is different for entrepreneurs? One possible reason for this could be a ceiling effect of work engagement. The average work engagement level in the current study among entrepreneurs is much higher than the average mentioned in the literature for other professions (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). Entrepreneurs are far more engaged than salaried employees (Smulders, 2006) and as a result there is less variance in work engagement than in salaried employees samples, diminishing the strength of the relationship (Gorgievski et al., 2010a). Possibly, having a high level of work engagement is a basic condition for successful business ownership, because of which it no longer discriminates between more and less successful entrepreneurs in a sample of established entrepreneurs. The net result, from a JD-R perspective, is that the strain-related process (impact of job demands via work-related strain) is more relevant for entrepreneurial feelings of success than the motivational process (impact of job resources via work engagement). This is especially true for feelings of financial success. With these outcomes the third research question of this thesis can be answered, which was formulated as: “How does the stress process and motivational process within the JD-R Model work for entrepreneurs in relationship to subjective personal and financial success?”

Limitations and future research

The Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007) has proven its value for predicting performance for many different occupations. In this study we found that this model to a large extent also applies to entrepreneurs. The current results need to be understood in light of several limitations to this study, however. First of all, this study is cross-sectional and longitudinal research would be needed in order to investigate possible causality and bi-directionality of relationships or developments over a longer period of time. Data was gathered from a single source using a single method. It is recommendable to use a combination of objective and subjective criteria when measuring the success of an enterprise and use their complementarity in future research (Pérez and Canino, 2009). For example, objective success indicators like turnover, profit, and number of employees could be added as indicators of financial business performance, besides the subjective financial success measures. In defense of our approach, we would like to mention that we found differential results for feelings of personal versus financial success. If common method problems would be

very strong in their impact, it would be hard to understand such differential findings.

Contextual factors like economic, political, legal or societal factors, may influence the different constructs of the JD-R Model and are not taken into account in this study but are worth integrating in future research. Furthermore, social, personal and organizational resources could be integrated into the model as they possibly add further to the understanding of the JD-R Model for entrepreneurs. As work-related strain has such a large impact on subjective personal and financial success, further in-depth research on coping strategies (Drnovsek et al., 2010) and hindrances of e.g. rules and regulations, can further explain business success. Research into work engagement for entrepreneurs can be extended by investigating possible compensatory strategies for entrepreneurs with lower engagement levels.

Implications

In spite of these limitations, our findings have interesting implications for research and practice. To our knowledge this was the first study applying the JD-R Model focusing on typical entrepreneurial job demands and job resources. Results show the relevance of the JD-R Model for entrepreneurs. However, in contrast to previous results, application of the JD-R Model to entrepreneurs shows that work-related strain is a stronger predictor of business success than work engagement, whereas the predictive power of work engagement for subjective success is weaker than could be expected based on results among other occupational groups. This implies entrepreneurial strain and its drivers (job demands and lack of job resources) are more important for predicting business success than is currently being acknowledged. At least the literature shows a bias towards studying positive emotions and affect, see for a review Omorede et al. (2014).

Furthermore, results show lower variance explained for subjective financial success than for subjective personal success. We assume that external factors, for example macroeconomic conditions, play a more important role in subjective financial success than in subjective personal success. Therefore we interpret the difference in variance as an indication for the validity of our study and measures.

With regard to implications for the general JD-R literature, our results suggest that it might be important to check whether the JD-R Model may also have limited generalizability for certain groups of salaried workers that resemble entrepreneurs. For example, based on our findings it might be important to investigate whether the motivational process is less able to differentiate between subjective feelings of successful performance among higher level professionals and/or managers.

As concerns practical implications, our results indicate that being able to deal effectively with job demands and work-related strain might be more important for achieving competitive advantage as an entrepreneur than the motivational process. All

entrepreneurs are on the whole quite high on motivation, and this restriction of range prohibits strong findings on the link with feelings of success among entrepreneurs. But some entrepreneurs clearly report more job demands and work-related strain than others, and these differences appear to be strongly related to feelings of success. So, a starting point for achieving better subjective success lies in managing job demands and in mastering better coping strategies helping entrepreneurs to deal with work-related strain.

Entrepreneurs who are not able to cope with work-related strain are likely to perceive themselves both as less financially and personally successful. This might lead to a downward spiral of feeling more pressure, more work-related strain and less business success. A longitudinal study demonstrating such a downward spiral would be highly relevant.

These results are not only intriguing for entrepreneurs themselves, but also for policy makers, business mentors and counsellors aiming to assist business owners in the elimination and prevention of work-related strain in order to achieve higher subjective financial and personal success. The key to lower work-related strain is reducing the impact of 'uncertainty and risk', 'quantitative workload' and 'time demands'. Time management courses and specific mentoring on coping with uncertainty, time and work pressure would be advisable. On the other hand, the entrepreneur can procure more job resources, such as better 'organization of work' and 'feedback'. The entrepreneur can learn to better organize his work in talking to colleagues, hiring a specialized mentor, and reading books about this item. Feedback can be generated by getting a membership of a business owner network where open discussions are organized.

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Chapter Four

FOUR TYPES OF WELL-BEING AMONG ENTREPRENEURS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIPS WITH BUSINESS PERFORMANCE

4

Manuscript under review:

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"I follow my passion for food by making healthy 100% natural vitamin shakes and giving food advice. I love my work and feel very engaged and satisfied. On the other hand I sometimes feel exhausted and a workaholic. Sports gives me the relaxation and energy I need, to be in balance."

Lotje van der Heijden, owner 'VitaMobiel'

Abstract

Four types of work-related affective well-being are applied to entrepreneurs and related to multiple self-reported business performance indicators. With this paper, we contribute to entrepreneurship research by providing a more comprehensive understanding of work-related affective well-being and its influence on business performance. We herewith answer research question 4 of this thesis: Which work-related well-being type of entrepreneur achieves best business performance?

In this study large numbers in the sample of Dutch entrepreneurs (N=135) score above the 75th percentile on three of the four constructs of work-related affective well-being, based on statistical norms in the (working) population. This means that entrepreneurs mostly cannot be clearly classified as falling into one of the four affective well-being types. Most entrepreneurs are high on multiple types of affective well-being, thus defying the idea that the circumplex can be used as a person typology.

Studying the association with multiple performance indicators shows that working excessively followed by high job satisfaction, has the most positive effects on entrepreneurial success. When combined, working excessively and being engaged gives the entrepreneur more turnover and profit than if he or she would only work excessively or be engaged. The lowest business performance is reported by compulsively working entrepreneurs. These results imply that typical patterns or combinations of affective well-being types are commonly found in entrepreneurs, and that these appear to relate differentially to self-reported performance indicators.

The current study adds to prior literature in connecting work-related affective well-being for entrepreneurs to business results, by studying the combined influence on business performance of all four types of work-related affective well-being.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurialism, Entrepreneurial well-being, Entrepreneurial success, Business performance

Introduction

There is growing academic interest in the topic of subjective well-being (e.g. Diener 1994; 2000). Among the factors influencing subjective well-being, employment stands out (Frey, 2008). Persons who are unemployed experience much less happiness than other persons, even when other influences such as lower income are controlled for (Benz and Frey, 2008; Frey, 2008). Looking at differences between the self-employed and the employed, several studies clearly show that the self-employed are more satisfied with their work than employees (Andersson, 2008; Benz and Frey, 2003; 2004; 2008; Blanchflower and Oswald, 1998; Bradley and Roberts, 2004; Hundley, 2001; Tetrick, et al., 2000). Besides a high evaluation of job satisfaction, entrepreneurs

also score higher on life satisfaction (Andersson, 2008). Next to being satisfied with your life and work, feeling engaged is another positive dimension of well-being (e.g. Bakker et al., 2008), and there, too, entrepreneurs score higher in comparison to employees (Gorgievski et al., 2010; Smulders, 2006). This study further explores how the scores on different types of work-related affective well-being in entrepreneurs relate to those in employees.

Feeling well and being happy are linked to achieving better performance in one's work (e.g. Judge et al., 2001; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). This relationship among employees has been studied extensively, but to a far lesser extent among entrepreneurs. To investigate this relationship, this study links different types of work-related affective well-being to entrepreneurial performance. Thus, the answer to research question 4 of this thesis is found: Which work-related well-being type of entrepreneur achieves best business performance?

To be able to answer this research question the study of Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) is used as a theoretical framework. They integrated four types of work-related affective well-being in the circumplex model of affective well-being (Feldman Barrett & Russell, 1999; Russell, 1980; 2003; Warr, 1990; Warr et al., 2014). Two of the four dimensions are positive types, i.e. job satisfaction, and work engagement, and the other two are the negative types: workaholism and exhaustion. Work engagement and job satisfaction are different concepts. Engagement combines work pleasure (dedication) with high activation (vigor, absorption) (Bakker et al., 2011; Bakker and Hakanen, 2013). Job satisfaction is typically a more passive form of well-being (Bakker and Hakanen, 2013). In their high activation levels and working hard, engaged workers seem to equal workaholics, but work engagement and workaholism have been confirmed to be independent constructs (Van Beek et al., 2011; Mäkikangas et al., 2013). Engaged workers do not work compulsively the way workaholics do, and they rather consider work to be fun (Schaufeli et al., 2001). Workaholism is a combination of working excessively and working compulsively (McMillan and O'Driscoll, 2006; Taris and Schaufeli, 2003). There is a potentially serious side effect of workaholism: exhaustion. Exhaustion reflects the stress dimension of burnout (Bakker et al., 2004; Maslach et al., 2001; Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009a), and is defined as "a chronic state of physical and emotional depletion that results from excessive job demands and continuous hassles" (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998, p. 486). Research among entrepreneurs shows high overall exhaustion and stress levels (Boyd and Gumpert, 1983; Buttner, 1992; Harris et al., 1999; Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009b).

These four types of well-being are represented by Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) in the circumplex model on two dimensions: activation and pleasure (Russell, 1980; 2003; Russell and Carroll, 1999; Russell and Feldman Barrett, 1999). One of the axes runs from pleasure, positive emotions such as feeling happy and calm, to

displeasure, e.g. emotions such as feeling tense and sad (Russell 1980, 2003; Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011). Job satisfaction and work engagement are both on the pleasure side of the circumplex. On the displeasure side we find workaholism and exhaustion. The activation dimension indicates high and low activation, varying according to the experience of emotions. A high level of activation is feeling energized and excited, while a low level is feeling relaxed and fatigued. Opposites can be found between workaholism and job satisfaction, confirmed by the research of Taris et al. (2009), and between work engagement and exhaustion, which is also confirmed in a previous study (González-Roma et al., 2006). Using an integrative circumplex model that includes the constructs of affective well-being and relates them to each other provides more insights into the interrelationships (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011; Russell 1980; 2003; Russell and Carroll, 1999; Van Katwyk et al., 2000). These interrelationships are further explored in this study.

There is broad acceptance of Russell's circumplex model of affect, despite its limitations (Burke et al., 1989; Mäkikangas et al., 2007; Remington et al., 2000; Van Katwyk et al., 2000). One of the limitations mentioned is the two-dimensional representation, which could lead to a lack of differences among emotions. Emotions that are positioned close in the circle, such as fear and anger, seem quite similar because of their position in the circumplex, but are in fact very different (Larsen and Diener, 1992; Remington et al., 2000). Empirical evidence also supports Warr's (1987) assertion that job-related affective well-being is two-dimensional, including four interrelated factors (Mäkikangas et al., 2007; Van Katwyk et al., 2000). This study takes the four types of work-related affective well-being of Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) as person typologies for entrepreneurs and links the different types to business performance. There are studies available on the separate four types of work-related affective well-being among entrepreneurs, but not on the four types in one model, and their (inter)relationships with business performance. This study further investigates not just the interrelationships of the dimensions, but the relationship with business performance as well.

This study contributes in several ways to prior literature. Firstly, by contributing to the understanding of work-related affective well-being among entrepreneurs. Validated scales are being used to investigate the four types of work-related affective well-being according to the earlier research of Bakker and Oerlemans (2011). Secondly, we are able to compare the scores of entrepreneurs with the norms of employees and see whether the two occupational groups differ. Furthermore, we are able to see how entrepreneurs are ranked on the four concepts, providing insight into whether entrepreneurs fall into one or more of the four types. The link from the different well-being types to business performance is made. If we know which well-being type(s) of entrepreneur achieves the best business results, entrepreneurs,

policy makers, business training centres, and business mentors have a better idea of which psychological constructs to focus on in their policies and programs. Knowing how to achieve the best business results is not just positive for entrepreneurs, but for the economy at large as well, because of the contribution of entrepreneurship to the creation of jobs and wealth.

Four types of well-being among entrepreneurs and their relationships with business performance

Entrepreneurs have a very high level of engagement and are more engaged than employees in executing their activities (Gorgievski et al., 2010; Smulders, 2006). Two studies comparing employees and entrepreneurs, made it evident that work engagement relates positively to business performance (Gorgievski and Bakker, 2010; Gorgievski et al., 2014). Engaged business owners are more successful. On the pleasure side of the circumplex model – see Figure 1 – we also find job satisfaction, and previous research has shown that entrepreneurs are more satisfied with their work than employees (Andersson, 2008; Benz and Frey, 2003; 2004; 2008; Blanchflower and Oswald, 1998; Bradley and Roberts, 2004; Hundley, 2001; Tetrick, et al., 2000). The positive relationship with business success is confirmed in a recent study among entrepreneurs of Dej (2011).

With respect to workaholism, a study showed that self-employed score higher than employees on working excessively, but not on working compulsively (Gorgievski et al., 2010). Another study of Gorgievski et al. (2014) found a negative relation with performance, implying that workaholic entrepreneurs are less successful than their non-workaholic colleagues. Workaholism in this study relates to more negative, and less positive affect. On the displeasure side of the circumplex we also find exhaustion (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011; Russell, 1980; 2003; Russell and Carroll, 1999). Research has shown that business owners experience high overall exhaustion and high stress levels (Boyd and Gumpert, 1983; Buttner, 1992; Harris et al., 1999; Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009b). Entrepreneurs experience a demanding environment, a heavy workload, a lot of responsibility with risk involved, and there is a lot of complexity to deal with in their work, which leads to exhaustion, as found in Study 2 (Chapter 3). Additional literature shows that in turn, exhaustion leads to lower business performance (Buttner, 1992; Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009a; 2009b).

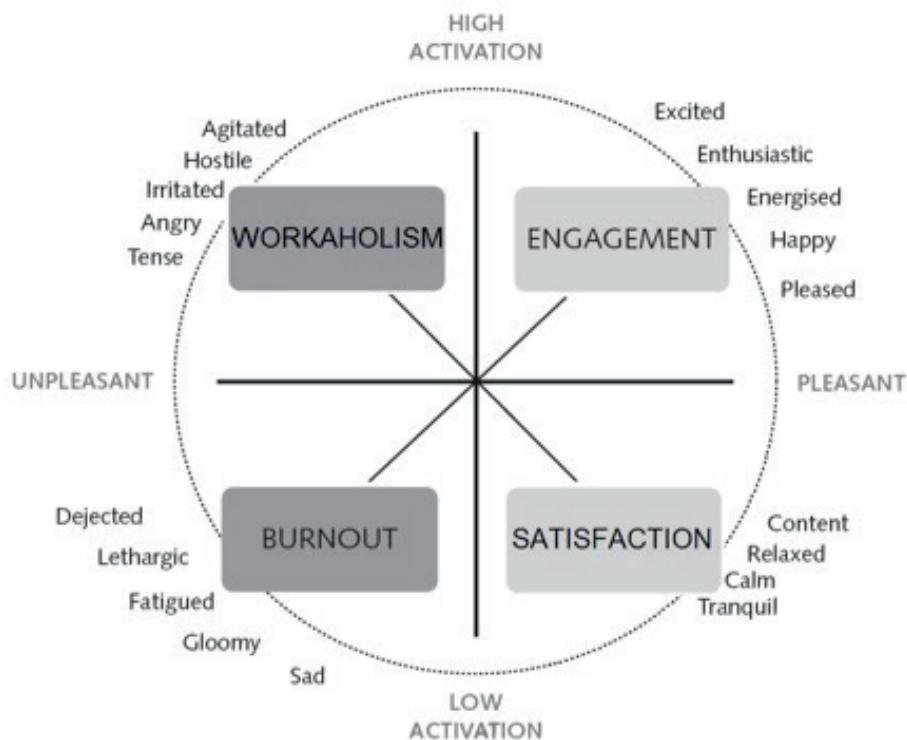


Figure 1 A two-dimensional view of work-related SWB (cf. Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011)

So far, we introduced four constructs of work-related affective well-being for entrepreneurs. On all of these concepts entrepreneurs are likely to score high, and in most cases higher than employed workers, leading to the first explorative research question:

Research question 1 **How do the scores on the four types of work-related affective well-being in entrepreneurs relate to those scores in employees?**

In the first research question, the four dimensions of work-related affective well-being are examined separately. The next step is to investigate the interrelationships among the different concepts (Russell, 1980; 2003; Russell and Carroll, 1999; Van Katwyk et al., 2000), leading to the second research question:

Research question 2 How do the four dimensions of work-related affective well-being interrelate?

We expect positive associations between the two concepts related to high pleasure: work engagement and job satisfaction, and the two concepts that are associated with high activation: workaholism and work engagement.

Hypothesis 1

Work engagement and job satisfaction are positively associated among entrepreneurs.

Hypothesis 2

Work engagement and workaholism are positively associated among entrepreneurs.

In the circumplex, opposites can be found between workaholism and job satisfaction (Taris et al. (2009), and between work engagement and exhaustion (González-Roma et al., 2006). At a certain moment, a person cannot feel like a workaholic, with emotions such as agitation and irritation, and feel satisfied, with emotions such as contentment and calmness (Russell, 1980; 2003). This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3

Workaholism and job satisfaction are negatively associated among entrepreneurs.

Hypothesis 4

Work engagement and exhaustion are negatively associated among entrepreneurs.

The scores of the four types of well-being (Research question 1), the associations between the constructs (Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2), and the associations of the two poles in the circumplex model (Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4), provide information about whether entrepreneurs fit into the a certain quadrant of the circumplex model (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011). As people do not feel workaholic, exhausted, satisfied and engaged at the same time, according to the model, we assume that although entrepreneurs score high on all four types of work-related affective well-being they might fit into one of the quadrants as a person typology. We assume the following research question:

Research question 3 Are the four types of work-related affective well-being unique to entrepreneurs, or do the four types overlap?

Knowing which work-related affective well-being types are present among entrepreneurs and how they associate, leads us to the next research question. We want to examine which type of work-related affective well-being is related to the best business performance. If we know which type is most successful, business consultants or mentors can assist entrepreneurs to develop the personal skills that fit the characteristics of this type. Previous research among entrepreneurs found different relationships between the four types of well-being separately, and entrepreneurial performance. Between work engagement and business performance, a positive relationship is found (Gorgievski et al., 2014; Gorgievski and Bakker, 2010). A positive correlation is also found between job satisfaction and business performance (Dej, 2011). Negative relationships are found with performance and workaholism (Gorgievski et al., 2014), and exhaustion (see Study 2 in Chapter 3). These studies investigated separate well-being types and their relationship with business performance. In this study we want to know which type of work-related affective well-being, or which combination of types, is associated with the best business performance. We therefore formulate the final research question:

Research question 4 Which type of work-related affective well-being or which combination of types relates to the best business performance?

Methodology

Procedure and participants

In a previous study among entrepreneurs in 2012 (Study 2; Dijkhuizen et al., in press), the respondents could choose whether or not to participate in future studies. A total of 248 business owners signed up as future respondents. Of these invited 248 entrepreneurs, a total of 135 respondents filled in an online questionnaire in the first quarter of 2014 (response rate of 54%). These respondents were individuals who founded or owned a private company (older than one year), employing less than 250 people in The Netherlands. This is in line with the definition of the European Commission, that defines small and medium sized enterprises as companies employing less than 250 people. In the demarcation of entrepreneurs, we follow the definition by Van Praag and Versloot (2007), that is to say: “individuals who have started up a business or who own a business, i.e., who are self-employed or the owner-manager of an incorporated business, as entrepreneurs too”. 44 percent of companies

were founded less than 3 years ago, 21.5 percent existed between 3 and 5 years, 39.3 percent between 6-10 years, and 34.8 percent more than ten years ago. Respondents were active in various branches of industry (e.g. service industry, information and communication, and health services) and mainly on a national scale (467 percent). Most of the respondents held a bachelor or master degree (844 percent). Weekly hours spent as an entrepreneur averaged 42.31 hours.

Measures

The four constructs of work-related affective well-being are measured with one validated, widely accepted scale per concept.

Workaholism

The 10-item two-dimensional version of the Dutch WorkAholism Scale (DUWAS; Del Líbano et al., 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2011) is used with items scored on a 4-point scale (1 = 'never'; 4 = 'always'). The two subscales include 'working excessively' and 'working compulsively'. An example item for working excessively is 'I seem to be in a hurry and racing against the clock'. An example of working compulsively is 'It's important to me to work hard even when I don't enjoy what I'm doing'. In this study Cronbach's alpha for working excessively was .76 and for working compulsively .72.

Exhaustion

Exhaustion was measured by the validated 6-item scale of need for recovery (Van Veldhoven et al., 2002; 2014), e.g. 'I find it difficult to relax at the end of a working day'. The items were answered on a 4-point scale with 0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, 3=always. For this scale, Cronbach's alpha was .88.

Engagement

Work engagement was measured with the 9-item version of the Dutch Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). The items are answered on a 7-point scale, 1=never to 7=daily. An example item is 'I am enthusiastic about my job'. The Cronbach's alpha in this study was .89.

Satisfaction

Satisfaction was measured by the adapted version of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; Diener et al., 1985; 2012). The SWLS items are global in nature, and were adapted for inclusion in our study to be formulated directly in relation to satisfaction with entrepreneurship. This is a 5-point scale with 1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree. An example item is 'I am satisfied with my entrepreneurial life'. In this study, the Cronbach's alpha was .88.

Business performance

Business performance was measured by self-reported turnover, profit, and number of employees (Cooper et al., 1994; Van Praag and Versloot, 2007) over the year 2013.

Results

To investigate Research question 1, the scores of the entrepreneurs on the four dimensions of work-related affective well-being were compared with the statistical norm scores for employees. Manuals and empirical studies on the scales provided access to the statistical norms. For all measures we were able to find information on the 75th percentile scores in large samples. For workaholism, the 75th percentile is taken into account for working excessively and working compulsively separately. We used the statistical norms from Schaufeli et al., (2011), based on a sample of N=11,060. The norms of work engagement come from the manual of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003), with a sample of 9,679 people for the shortened version of UWES that was used in this study. For job satisfaction we used a study on the Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985) with 176 respondents. For the exhaustion scale of Van Veldhoven et al. (2002), for which statistical data of 20,877 respondents were available. Besides the availability of information on the 75th percentile, the fact that, for example, the 95th percentile would give smaller numbers and would make comparisons more difficult, led to the use of the 75th percentile. It is important to have enough cases for comparison in the different quadrants. As the sample size of 135 respondents is rather small, we chose to have a minimum of 15 cases per cell. Next, we compared the statistical norms for employees to the data from this study among entrepreneurs, see Table 1.

Table 1: Number of entrepreneurs scoring higher than employees on dimensions of work-related affective well-being

Workaholism EW: 20 above 75 percentile (14.8%) CW: 41 above 75 percentile (30.4%)	Work engagement 116 above 75 percentile (86.0%)
Exhaustion 59 above 75 percentile (43.7%)	Job satisfaction 51 above 75 percentile (37.8%)

On workaholism, 20 respondents (14.8%) scored higher than the 75th percentile of 2.91 (Schaufeli et al., 2011) on EW (working excessively). On CW (working compulsively) 41 respondents (30.4%) scored higher than the 75th percentile of 2.41 (Schaufeli et al., 2011). On work engagement the 75th percentile is 4.67 of the shortened version of the Dutch Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). In the sample group 116 respondents (86.0%) scored higher. On the quadrant of job satisfaction, 51 respondents (37.8%) scored higher than the 75th percentile of 2.6 (Diener et al., 1985; 2012). On the construct of satisfaction the statistical norms of the Satisfaction With Life Scale of Diener (Diener et al., 1985) are compared to the adapted version of satisfaction with entrepreneurship used in this study. A total of 59 respondents (43.7%) scored higher than the 75th percentile of 1.00 (Van Veldhoven et al., 2002) on exhaustion.

The entrepreneurs in our sample show very high scores on work engagement, and relatively high scores on exhaustion and job satisfaction, with lower scores on working compulsively and working excessively. Research question 1 is herewith investigated, and we can conclude that entrepreneurs score higher than the statistical norm for employees on three of the four types of work-related affective well-being. Besides examining the four dimensions of work-related affective well-being separately, we are also interested in the interrelationships, exploring Research question 2. We use a correlation matrix, see Table 2, to study the associations between the different dimensions.

Table 2

Means, standard deviations, alpha reliability coefficient, and correlation coefficients (N=135).

	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Working excessively	2.22	0.60	(.76)			
2. Working compulsively	2.15	0.66	.74**	(.72)		
3. Work engagement	5.21	0.76	-.19**	-.27**	(.89)	
4. Exhaustion	0.89	0.55	.60**	.51**	-.38**	(.88)
5. Job satisfaction	3.39	0.85	-.30**	-.29**	.35**	-.28** (.88)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Correlations show that the four constructs are strongly related. This is in line with previous research among employees (Schaufeli et al., 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2009). All relations in the two-dimensional model are significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed), with strong correlations existing between workaholism (both working excessively and working compulsively) and exhaustion (.60** and .51** respectively), which was expected from previous studies (Schaufeli et al. 2009; Taris et al., 2009). Furthermore, relatively high correlations were found between workaholism and satisfaction (30** for working excessively and -.29** for working compulsively), in line with Taris et al. (2009). The high correlation between engagement and satisfaction (.35**) is in line with the findings of Schaufeli et al. (2001) and confirms Hypothesis 1, work engagement and job satisfaction are positively associated among entrepreneurs.

As suggested in Hypothesis 2, work engagement and workaholism (working excessively and working compulsively) are indeed associated with a correlation of -.19** and -.27**, but negatively instead of positively, thus rejecting Hypothesis 2. However, other relationships of workaholism with job satisfaction and exhaustion are stronger.

The association of workaholism and job satisfaction was hypothesized to be negative, as they are two poles in the circumplex model. Table 2 indeed shows a negative relationship (-.30** and -.29**) between the two dimensions, thus confirming Hypothesis 3. The other pole in the circumplex model is the relationship between work engagement and exhaustion, and from Table 2 we can learn that this is the case among entrepreneurs (-.38**). We therewith confirm Hypothesis 4.

To be able to study whether the four types of work-related affective well-being are unique for entrepreneurs or whether the types overlap (Research question 3), we first examine the scores of entrepreneurs on the separate dimensions from Table 1 again. Entrepreneurs score higher than employees on the statistical norms of three of the four types of work-related affective well-being, so there seems to be an overlap of affective well-being dimensions. The overlap between the two types on the pleasure side: work engagement and job satisfaction, is 48 respondents (35.6%), see Table 4. The overlap between the two constructs on the high activation side: work engagement and workaholism, is 16 (11.9%) for working excessively and 29 (21.5%) for working compulsively. Both from the high scores of entrepreneurs compared to employees on the separate dimensions (see Table 1), and the overlap in Table 4, we assume that entrepreneurs' work-related affective well-being cannot be matched in one single quadrant of the circumplex model. We therefore conclude on Research question 3, that the four types of work-related affective well-being in entrepreneurs overlap.

The next step in our study was to investigate the relationships between the four types of work-related affective well-being on the one hand and business performance

on the other hand (Research question 4). Business performance was measured in terms of turnover, profit, and number of employees over the year 2013. For the total group of respondents (N=135) the turnover (M=3.27), profit (M=2.19) and number of employees (M=8.98) were calculated, see Table 3. The second step was to measure the performance of the entrepreneurs scoring higher than the 75th percentile on the four types of work-related affective well-being.

Table 3: Entrepreneurs scoring above statistical norms on separate dimensions of work-related affective well-being, and their average turnover, profit and number of employees

	N	Mean Turnover	Mean Profit	Mean Nr employee
Total group	135	3.27	2.19	8.98
# classified as working excessively	20	4.25	2.65	15.70
# classified as working compulsively	41	3.61	2.27	8.20
# classified as working engaged	116	3.34	2.29	9.46
# classified as exhausted	59	3.53	2.12	8.17
# classified as job satisfied	51	3.65	2.59	14.98

In Table 3 we see that all high scoring entrepreneurs in each of the groups perform better than the whole group (N=135) in terms of 'turnover', but not in terms of 'profit' and 'number of employees'.

Independent-samples t-tests were conducted to compare the business performance of the group of entrepreneurs scoring above the statistical norm of the four types of work-related affective well-being, to the entrepreneurs scoring below the norm. We found a significant difference in working excessively and turnover (below norm M = 3.10, SD = 1.79; above norm M = 4.25, SD = 2.29; $t(133) = -2.530$, $p = .01$), but no significant difference in profit (below norm M = 2.11, SD = 1.44; above norm M = 2.65, SD = 1.46; $t(133) = -1.538$, $p = .13$) and number of employees (below norm M = 7.81, SD = 44.37; above norm M = 15.70, SD = 27.69; $t(133) = -.768$, $p = .44$). On working compulsively, we did not find a significant difference in turnover (below norm M = 3.13, SD = 1.82; above norm M = 3.61, SD = 2.08; $t(133) = -1.356$, $p = .18$), profit (below norm M = 2.16, SD = 1.48; above norm M = 2.27, SD = 1.38; $t(133) = -.400$, $p = .69$), and number of employees (below norm M = 9.32, SD = 49.74; above norm M = 8.20, SD = 15.75; $t(133) = .141$, $p = .89$). On work engagement, we found no significant difference in turnover (below norm M = 2.84, SD = 2.24; above norm M = 3.34, SD = 1.85; $t(133) = -1.066$, $p = .29$) and number of employees (below norm

M = 6.06, SD = 11.10; above norm M = 946, SD = 4546; $t(133) = -.324$, $p = .75$) found, but a significant difference in profit (below norm M = 1.58, SD = 0.90; above norm M = 2.29, SD = 1.50; $t(133) = -2.015$, $p = .05$). On exhaustion there is no significant difference in turnover (below norm M = 3.08, SD = 1.91; above norm M = 3.53, SD = 1.89; $t(133) = -1.354$, $p = .18$), profit (below norm M = 2.25, SD = 1.44; above norm M = 2.12, SD = 1.46; $t(133) = .521$, $p = .60$), and number of employees (below norm M = 9.61, SD = 54.22; above norm M = 8.17, SD = 18.33; $t(133) = .195$, $p = .85$). On job satisfaction there is no significant difference in turnover (below norm M = 3.05, SD = 1.96; above norm M = 3.65, SD = 1.76; $t(133) = -1.786$, $p = .08$) and number of employees (below norm M = 5.33, SD = 11.90; above norm M = 14.98, SD = 67.14; $t(51915) = -1.017$, $p = .31$), but significant in profit (below norm M = 1.95, SD = 1.31; above norm M = 2.59, SD = 1.59; $t(133) = -2.523$, $p = .01$). From the T-tests we can conclude that entrepreneurs scoring above the statistical norm for working excessively score significantly higher on turnover. Being engaged and satisfied above the norm gives significantly higher scores on profit, partially answering research question 7.

Besides, studying the performance of the different types of work-related affective well-being separately, the final step is to examine whether a combination of types is associated with an even better performance. For example, if being engaged and exhausted are related to a higher performance than only being engaged or exhausted. In Table 4 the different combinations are indicated with the number of respondents scoring above the 75th percentile on both indicated types. For these groups of respondents with both dimensions the business success indicators are calculated. We observe that the business performance are even higher when the entrepreneur is not only working excessively (see Table 2), but is also satisfied. The highest score on turnover and profit is found in excessively working and engaged entrepreneurs (N=16). This 'double type' gives the entrepreneur more turnover and profit than if he or she would only work excessively or be engaged (see Table 3).

Both these types are on the high activation side, so entrepreneurs feeling either positively or negatively energized have a higher turnover and profit. The entrepreneur with the (second) largest number of employees is the excessively working and exhausted entrepreneur (see Table 4). Both these types are on the unpleasant side of the circumplex. The lowest performance is found in compulsively working entrepreneurs who are also satisfied, or engaged, or exhausted. Looking at only exhaustion, entrepreneurs score worst on profit and number of employees, and when combined with the other three types, scores are low, but the worst for the compulsively working entrepreneurs.

Independent-samples t-tests were conducted to compare the scores on turnover, profit and number of employees for the different groups in Table 4 (e.g. both working excessively and work engagement, both above the statistical norms versus working

Table 4: Entrepreneurs scoring above statistical norms on two dimensions of work-related affective well-being, and their average turnover, profit and number of employees

	N	Mean Turnover	Mean Profit	Mean Nr employee
Total group	135	3.27	2.19	8.98
# classified as excessively working AND work engaged	16	4.31	2.88	16.19
# classified as compulsively working AND work engaged	29	3.72	2.59	8.00
# classified as excessively working AND exhausted	17	4.06	2.47	17.59
# classified as compulsively working AND exhausted	30	3.80	2.20	9.03
# classified as excessively working AND job satisfied	4	4.75	3.50	25.00
# classified as compulsively working AND job satisfied	11	3.45	2.64	0.64
# classified as work engaged AND exhausted	46	3.61	2.30	8.22
# classified as work engaged AND job satisfied	48	3.71	2.63	15.92
# classified as exhausted AND job satisfied	16	3.75	2.75	9.88

excessively and/or being engaged below the statistical norms). There was a significant difference in working excessively combined with work engagement, in turnover (below norm $M = 3.13$, $SD = 1.85$; above norm $M = 4.31$, $SD = 2.06$; $t(133) = -2.360$, $p = .02$), and profit (below norm $M = 2.10$, $SD = 1.43$; above norm $M = 2.88$, $SD = 1.41$; $t(133) = -2.031$, $p = .04$), but no significant difference in number of employees (below norm $M = 8.01$, $SD = 43.73$; above norm $M = 16.19$, $SD = 29.97$; $t(133) = -.724$, $p = .47$). On working compulsively combined with work engagement, we did not find a significant difference in turnover (below norm $M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.92$; above norm $M = 3.72$, $SD = 1.83$; $t(133) = -1.441$, $p = .15$), profit (below norm $M = 2.08$, $SD = 1.45$; above norm $M = 2.59$, $SD = 1.40$; $t(133) = -1.663$, $p = .10$), and number of employees (below norm $M = 9.25$, $SD = 47.01$; above norm $M = 8.00$, $SD = 16.89$; $t(133) = .140$, $p = .89$). On working excessively combined with exhaustion, we also did not find significant differences in turnover (below norm $M = 3.16$, $SD = 1.81$; above norm $M = 4.06$, $SD = 2.41$; $t(133) = -1.832$, $p = .07$), profit (below norm $M = 2.15$, $SD = 1.44$; above norm $M = 2.47$, $SD = 1.51$; $t(133) = -.846$, $p = .40$), and number of employees (below norm $M = 7.74$, $SD = 43.81$; above norm $M = 17.59$, $SD = 29.70$; $t(133) = -.896$, $p = .37$). On working compulsively combined with exhaustion, we did not find significant differences in turnover (below norm $M = 3.12$, $SD = 1.83$; above norm $M = 3.80$, $SD = 2.09$; $t(133) = -1.726$, $p = .09$), profit (below norm $M = 2.19$, $SD = 1.50$; above norm $M = 2.20$, $SD = 1.27$; $t(133) = -.032$, $p = .98$), and number of employees (below norm $M = 8.96$, $SD = 47.22$; above norm $M = 9.03$, $SD = 16.82$; $t(133) = -.008$, $p = .99$). On

working excessively combined with job satisfaction, no significant differences are found, neither in turnover (below norm $M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.89$; above norm $M = 4.75$, $SD = 2.22$; $t(133) = -1.581$, $p = .12$), in profit (below norm $M = 2.15$, $SD = 1.43$; above norm $M = 3.50$, $SD = 1.73$; $t(133) = -1.850$, $p = .07$), nor in number of employees (below norm $M = 8.49$, $SD = 42.20$; above norm $M = 25.00$, $SD = 50.00$; $t(133) = -.767$, $p = .44$). The combination of working compulsively and job satisfaction shows the same lack of significant differences in turnover (below norm $M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.95$; above norm $M = 3.45$, $SD = 1.29$; $t(133) = -.327$, $p = .75$), profit (below norm $M = 2.15$, $SD = 1.49$; above norm $M = 2.64$, $SD = 0.81$; $t(133) = -1.061$, $p = .29$), and number of employees (below norm $M = 9.72$, $SD = 44.10$; above norm $M = 0.64$, $SD = 1.50$; $t(133) = .681$, $p = .50$). On work engagement combined with exhaustion we did not find any significant differences either, neither in turnover (below norm $M = 3.10$, $SD = 2.01$; above norm $M = 3.61$, $SD = 1.67$; $t(133) = -1.473$, $p = .14$), profit (below norm $M = 2.13$, $SD = 1.41$; above norm $M = 2.30$, $SD = 1.53$; $t(133) = -.643$, $p = .52$), nor in number of employees (below norm $M = 9.37$, $SD = 50.29$; above norm $M = 8.22$, $SD = 19.71$; $t(133) = .150$, $p = .88$).

On work engagement combined with job satisfaction we found significant difference in turnover (below norm $M = 3.03$, $SD = 1.94$; above norm $M = 3.71$, $SD = 1.79$; $t(133) = -1.988$, $p = .05$), and on profit (below norm $M = 1.95$, $SD = 1.29$; above norm $M = 2.63$, $SD = 1.62$; $t(133) = -2.634$, $p = .01$), but not in number of employees (below norm $M = 5.15$, $SD = 11.73$; above norm $M = 15.92$, $SD = 69.14$; $t(48.50) = -1.071$, $p = .29$). On exhaustion combined with job satisfaction we did not find significant differences in turnover (below norm $M = 3.21$, $SD = 1.95$; above norm $M = 3.75$, $SD = 1.48$; $t(133) = -1.064$, $p = .29$), profit (below norm $M = 2.12$, $SD = 1.37$; above norm $M = 2.75$, $SD = 1.92$; $t(133) = -1.650$, $p = .10$), or number of employees (below norm $M = 8.86$, $SD = 44.13$; above norm $M = 9.88$, $SD = 26.17$; $t(133) = -.090$, $p = .93$).

From the T-tests we can conclude that there are only a few significant differences, i.e. in work engagement combined with working excessively, and work engagement combined with job satisfaction. Both combinations showed significant differences in turnover and profit. We herewith extend our answer to the explorative research question 7: Which type of work-related affective well-being or which combination of types is related to best business performance?

Lastly, multiple regression analysis can answer the question how much variance in business performance scores can be explained by the variables workaholism, exhaustion, work engagement and job satisfaction. In Table 5, the multivariate analysis shows that for turnover the best predictor is working excessively, for profit the best predictor is job satisfaction, and for number of employees no significant predictor is found. The four dimensions of work-related affective well-being explain 15%, 13% and 3% of the variance in business performance indicators: turnover, profit, and number of employees.

Table 5: Multiple regression analysis

	Turnover	Profit	Number of employees
Variables	β	β	β
Working excessively	.40**	.27	.15
Working compulsively	.04	.08	-.04
Exhaustion	-.10	-.22*	-.10
Work engagement	.07	.07	.03
Job satisfaction	.22*	.24**	.13
R2	.15**	.13**	.03
ΔR^2	.15**	.13**	.03
*	p < .05		
**	p < .01		
***	p < .001		

Conclusions and implications

The aims of the present study were to investigate the four types of work-related affective well-being in entrepreneurs, and investigate their relationships with business performance. This study starts with the first research question on exploring how the scores on the four types of work-related affective well-being in entrepreneurs relate to those scores in employees. Results show that entrepreneurs in our sample score very high on work engagement, and relatively high on exhaustion and job satisfaction. Lower scores are found on workaholism, working compulsively and working excessively. We herewith investigated the explorative Research question 1 and conclude that entrepreneurs score higher than the statistical norm for employees on three of the four types of work-related affective well-being. This confirms previous studies that entrepreneurship is stressful and very demanding (i.e. Harris et al., 1999; Tetrick et al., 2000). On the other hand, it confirms the high work engagement (Gorgievski et al., 2010; Smulders, 2006) and high job satisfaction of entrepreneurs (Bradley and Roberts, 2004; Tetrick et al., 2000; Andersson, 2008). The very high score on both work engagement and exhaustion, two poles in the circumplex (González-Roma et al., 2006; Russell, 1980; 2003) is remarkable. Entrepreneurs seem to be energized and

fatigued at the same time. We assume that working independently gives a pleasant feeling and excitement of running your own business. However, running an enterprise means coping with uncertainty about future income, coping with responsibility, making decisions and taking risks (see Study 1 and 2 in Chapter 2 and 3; Dijkhuizen et al., 2014; in press). These job characteristics can cause work-related strain and exhaustion. From an academic perspective, the exhaustion-engagement relationship was investigated before. Different studies confirmed significant correlations of this relationship with specific job characteristics, such as skill use, personal control, job complexity, task variety and work load (Beck et al., 1961; Shapiro et al., 1990; Wall et al., 1987; Warr, 1990). As entrepreneurs work independently, we assume that they have considerably high levels of these job characteristics, which might explain the strong exhaustion-engagement relationship. Furthermore, in the last few decades, an academic debate circulated on whether pleasure and displeasure are indeed opposites (Green et al., 1993; Russell & Carroll, 1999). Possibly, exhaustion and engagement are two independent unipolar factors (Borgatta, 1961; McNair & Lorr, 1964) instead of bipolar (Green et al., 1993; Russell & Carroll, 1999). This investigation among entrepreneurs could be added to this discussion.

The lower score on workaholism can possibly be explained by the amount of working hours of entrepreneurs compared to employees. In our sample, 28 percent of the entrepreneurs work 36 hours or less, which is conform the normal working week in The Netherlands. A higher percentage, 30, is working 40 hours a week and another 25 percent is working 45 or 50 hours a week. 16 percent is working more than 50 hours a week. According to national statistics employees with a regular job of 35 hours per week, work on average 39.6 hours per week (<http://statline.cbs.nl/>), so they work overtime. The difference between entrepreneurs and employees in working hours are thus not extremely high.

A second part of this study was to examine how the four dimensions of work-related affective well-being interrelate (Research question 2). We found strong correlations between the four constructs confirming earlier studies that the dimensions are related (e.g. Russell, 1980; 2003). As suggested in Hypothesis 1 work engagement and job satisfaction are highly positively correlated, thus confirming this hypothesis in line with an earlier study of Schaufeli et al. (2001). The expected relationship between work engagement and workaholism, both working excessively and working compulsively, is indeed found, but is a negative instead of the expected positive relationship, thus rejecting Hypothesis 2. The association of workaholism and job satisfaction was found to be negative as two poles in the circumplex model and thus confirming Hypothesis 3, in line with Taris et al. (2009). The other pole in the circumplex model between work engagement and exhaustion was also confirmed (Hypothesis 4) matching the results from González-Roma et al. (2006).

Our next examination looked into whether the four types of work-related affective well-being are unique to entrepreneurs, or whether the types overlap, stated in Research question 3. The scores on separate dimensions show an overlap between the four types of work-related well-being. The fact that the entrepreneur seems to feel exhausted, engaged and satisfied at the same time largely contradicts to the assumptions of the circumplex model (Russell and Carroll, 1999). It is therefore not justified to use the circumplex model as a typology for entrepreneurs. Our answer to Research question 3, therefore, is that the four types of work-related affective well-being for entrepreneurs overlap. This seems to contradict earlier findings (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011; Russell and Feldman Barrett, 1999), but is in line with the study of Van Katwyk et al. (2000) who found that the “structure of affect failed to fit a clear circumplex structure when participants were given a context of the workplace. Although job-related affective well-being would seem to vary along dimensions of arousal and pleasure-displeasure, as suggested by Russell (1980), the dimensions are correlated” (Van Katwyk et al., 2000, p. 228). Emotions are not isolated entities, but interrelated (Bakker et al., 2011). It is difficult for people to differentiate one emotion from another while experiencing emotions (Russell and Fehr, 1994). We assume that entrepreneurs experience extreme emotions, as our scores show, leading to a mixed feelings. Another explanation for the high scores on different dimensions could be that the scales we used in this study were too general to grasp the momentary emotions. Looking at the questions in the validated scales used in this study, they are asked in a more general way than in a present tense. An example item for exhaustion is ‘I find it difficult to concentrate in my free time after work’. This question is not about how one feels at that particular moment, but more about a general feeling. Another example is for work engagement, i.e. ‘I am proud of the work that I do’. The scales we utilized in this study could explain how an entrepreneur can feel exhausted and engaged at the same time. So, the scales used to investigate the circumplex are of great importance to this study of typology.

The next step in this study was to compare the self-reported business performance of the entrepreneurs for each of the four types of work-related affective well-being. Research question 4 is based on the question, which type of work-related affective well-being or which combination of types is related to the best business performance. The highest self-reported business performance is achieved by the excessively working entrepreneurs, followed by the most satisfied entrepreneurs. We found significant differences in turnover for working excessively. Working many hours pays off for entrepreneurs. This outcome both supports and contradicts the existing literature. Supporting studies are the research from Schaufeli et al. (2006) and Burke (2006). On the other hand, a recent study shows contradictory results (Gorgievski et al., 2014). They did not find a significant relation between workaholism (working

compulsively plus working excessively) and business growth, by means of the same indicators: turnover, profit, and number of employees. We assume that the effect of dividing workaholism into two components – working excessively and working compulsively – gives more insight into the effects of business performance. This is supported by the findings that working excessively is the most positive indicator for business results in our sample, and working compulsively leads to the lowest performance. The compulsive element seems to be the counterbalancing element to get the performance out of the hard work, as suggested by previous research (e.g. Van Wijhe et al., 2011; Schaufeli et al., 2006; Gorgievski and Bakker, 2010). Worst business results are achieved by compulsively working entrepreneurs, who are also satisfied, or engaged, or exhausted. This combination with working compulsively does not have great effects on business performance compared to only working compulsively. Taking both working excessively and working compulsively into one type might neutralize its effects on business performance.

Entrepreneurs with the combination of working excessively and being engaged are the most successful group of entrepreneurs on ‘turnover’ and ‘profit’. Both types are in the high activation, so entrepreneurs feeling (positively or negatively) highly activated, perform better. We can assume that these entrepreneurs have a lot of energy to put into their company to perform. So, if you work very hard and more hours, you get more financial return. By only a small difference, the highest number of employees is achieved by the excessively working and exhausted entrepreneur. Both types are on the unpleasant side of the circumplex. We can assume that more employees cause the entrepreneur more agitation, tension, and fatigue. The investigation of the relationship with the four types of work-related affective well-being separately, and the combination of types related to business performance, gives insight into Research question 4.

With the outcomes of this study, the fourth research question of this thesis can be answered, which was formulated as: Which work-related well-being type of entrepreneur achieves the best business performance?

Contradictory to previous findings (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011; Warr et al., 2014), we found a stronger positive relationship between job satisfaction and performance, than between work engagement and performance. The explanation for this could be that job satisfaction is more than an emotion, it also contains a cognitive evaluation of various job features, and therefore is only weakly or not at all associated with job performance (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011; Van Katwyk et al., 2000; Warr et al., 2014).

Limitations and future research

There are several limitations to this study. The scales of the constructs workaholism, engagement and exhaustion were specifically developed and validated for the work

setting. The widely used Satisfaction With Life Scale is not work-related by origin, and was therefore adapted in this study to job satisfaction. It is recommended to test the scale used in this study in the future. Furthermore, a larger sample would give more detail of the overlap of the constructs and the effect on business performance. This might also explain why the circumplex model is not appropriate as a person typology for entrepreneurs. In this study we cannot explain this misfit, and further research can give us more insight into the emotions of entrepreneurs. In studying the circumplex model on emotions, we left out the cognitions. Particular emotions are influenced by their own kinds of cognitions (e.g., Lerner and Keltner, 2000; Warr et al., 2014; Yik et al., 1999; 2011). More research can add to our understanding in this area. Lastly, this is not a longitudinal study to measure the effect on business performance of current work-related affective well-being. A longitudinal study will explain more about the direction or causality of the work-related affective well-being concepts, and we recommend future research.

Theoretical and practical implications

In this study we investigated the four types of work-related affective well-being in entrepreneurs, and investigated their relation to business performance, turnover, profit, and employment. We wanted to know whether the workaholic, the engaged, the satisfied, or the most exhausted entrepreneur would achieve the best business results. Our findings imply that working excessively is associated with the highest turnover, profits and number of employees. The performance is even better, when the entrepreneur not only works excessively, but is also satisfied or engaged. Higher job satisfaction or work engagement is not only positive for performance, but it might also lower the risk of working too many hours, leading to exhaustion. Workaholism is highly correlated with exhaustion, and it is recommended that an entrepreneur finds the balance between working excessively and achieving high pleasure by being engaged or satisfied. Furthermore, the entrepreneur does not fit into the circumplex model if used as a person typology (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011). There is a role for trainers and mentors working with entrepreneurs on affective well-being. They can build programs or find coaching tools to help entrepreneurs find the balance of the different dimensions to achieve business performance, and happiness in their work. Positive affective feelings are needed, especially by entrepreneurs working in a challenging environment where proactive coping with problems and obstacles is almost daily work (Aspinwall and Taylor, 1997; Seo et al., 2004). For future research it would be interesting to combine the circumplex with not only self-reported financial business success measures, but also with subjective success measures.

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Chapter Five

WHAT COMES FIRST, WELL-BEING OR PERFORMANCE?

A TWO-WAY STUDY ON ENTREPRENEURIAL SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING AND BUSINESS PERFORMANCE

5

Manuscript under review:

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“As every other entrepreneur I experienced good and bad times in my company. If I am feeling successful, I am happy. The other side of the coin is also evident. If I feel happy, I definitely will be more successful in my work as the customers will notice my good mood.”

David van Iersel,
owner '24U in bedrijf'

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the bi-directional relationship between entrepreneurial well-being and business performance. The study is aimed at answering the fifth research question in this thesis, which was formulated as: Are well-being and business performance in entrepreneurs bi-directionally related? In a two-wave study among 121 entrepreneurs in The Netherlands, we found positive and impaired subjective well-being, predicting both subjective personal success and subjective financial success two years later. The expected positive relationship between business performance at T1 and well-being at T2, was not confirmed. Thus, the bi-directionality between entrepreneurial subjective well-being and business performance was not found in the sample group. This paper contributes to the literature by increasing the understanding of both positive dimensions of well-being of entrepreneurs (work engagement; life satisfaction; and job satisfaction), and impaired well-being (work home interference; recovery after work; detachment from work). Multiple measures of self-reported business performance are included as well, while studying the relationship with well-being. The current study also adds to prior literature, in adding longitudinal data to the bi-directional relationship of well-being and business performance among entrepreneurs.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial success, Entrepreneurial work engagement, Entrepreneurial job satisfaction

Introduction

This study aims to investigate the relationship between well-being and business performance among entrepreneurs. The effect of psychological well-being on employees' performance is widely acknowledged in the psychological academic arena, as well as in the human resources. Different theories and models are known on the well-being – performance relationship. In the field of human resources, the 'happy-productive worker hypothesis' is common ground (e.g. Paauwe and Richardson, 1997; Taris & Schreurs, 2009; Van de Voorde et al., 2012; Wright & Staw, 1999), and in psychology, the 'high performance cycle' is widely recognized (Locke and Latham, 1990a; 1990b; 2002). In the 'happy-productive worker hypothesis', findings support the hypothesis that satisfied employees perform better than other workers. However, correlations of job satisfaction with performance vary considerably. A meta-analysis of Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) shows correlations between job satisfaction and job performance to be fairly low. Interestingly, Judge et al. (2001) and Petty et al. (1984) found considerably higher correlations in their meta-analyses. Work performance may be more strongly predicted by general life satisfaction, than by job satisfaction (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005a; Wright and Cropanzano, 2000). In the current

study, both job and life satisfaction are included, but work engagement as a third construct of positive well-being as well. The relationship between work engagement and performance is also part of the JD-R Model, used as the theoretical starting point of this thesis (Chapter 1). In this model, the motivational process runs from well-being, in this case work engagement, to performance. This relationship is investigated in cross-sectional Study 2 (Chapter 3) and work engagement proved to be related to higher personal, but not financial subjective success.

Bakker and Demerouti (2007; 2008) mention different reasons why happy workers perform better. Firstly, positive emotions broaden people's 'thought-action repertoires', which build lasting personal resources (Fredrickson, 2001; 2013). Secondly, engaged workers experience better health, which means they can put their energy into their work. Thirdly, employees who are happy, take care of acquiring job and personal resources themselves. Finally, engaged workers infect their environment, which can improve team performance. Different studies find positive relationships between work engagement and performance among employees (e.g. Bakker & Bal, 2010; Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

The 'high performance cycle', on the other hand, shows that challenging or complex goals lead to high performance and rewards, which lead to job satisfaction. Being satisfied in turn leads to commitment to the goals and to high performance (Locke and Latham, 1990a; 1990b; 1990c; 2002; Locke et al., 1988). The bi-directional relationships as suggested by the high performance cycle have been studied far less. Schneider et al. (2003) and Ryan et al. (1996) investigated this bi-directionality among employees over various time lags. The result in both studies was that job satisfaction is more strongly predicted by organizational financial performance (Schneider et al., 2003), or customer satisfaction (Ryan et al., 1996), than the other way around.

In the case of entrepreneurs, a far smaller number of studies has explored the well-being – performance relationship (e.g. Carree & Verheul, 2012; Dej, 2011; Gorgievski et al., 2014). These studies are mainly cross-sectional and investigate the influence of well-being on performance, not the bi-directionality. In this thesis, a cross-sectional study on this subject is included in Appendix E. The study is published as an article and looks at how subjective success influences life and job satisfaction. Correlations in this study show stronger relationships between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, with subjective personal and subjective financial success. Longitudinal evidence of reciprocal relationships between well-being and entrepreneurial performance is scarce. Two longitudinal studies among Dutch agricultural business owners show that poor mental and physical well-being predicted financial hardship and poor financial business performance during one, two and even ten years (Gorgievski et al., 2010; Gorgievski-Duijvesteijn et al., 2005; Gorgievski-Duijvesteijn et al., 2000). The current study provides more insight into subjective well-being of entrepreneurs in other

branches, and its bi-directional relationship with business performance. Building on the ‘happy-productive worker hypothesis’ and the ‘high performance cycle’ we maintain that high well-being leads to high business performance for entrepreneurs, which in the long run predicts high well-being. In Study 2 (Chapter 3; Dijkhuizen et al., in press) the influence of work engagement on business performance has already been studied, as mentioned before. Results show that work-related strain predicted business performance to a greater extent than work engagement. We therefore include the same measures of work-related strain (work home interference, recovery after work, detachment from work), or impaired well-being, in this study. In addition, it is clear from study 3 (Chapter 4) that combinations of affective well-being, not just work engagement, but also job satisfaction, exhaustion, and workaholism, appear to relate differently to self-reported business performance.

This paper contributes to the literature in several ways. Firstly, this study increases the understanding of other, positive dimensions of well-being among entrepreneurs: job satisfaction; life satisfaction; and work engagement (Andersson, 2008; Diener, 2000; Fisher, 2010). Work engagement differs from job satisfaction and life satisfaction, in that it combines work pleasure (dedication) with high activation (vigor, absorption). Job satisfaction and life satisfaction are typically more passive forms of well-being (Bakker and Hakanen, 2013).

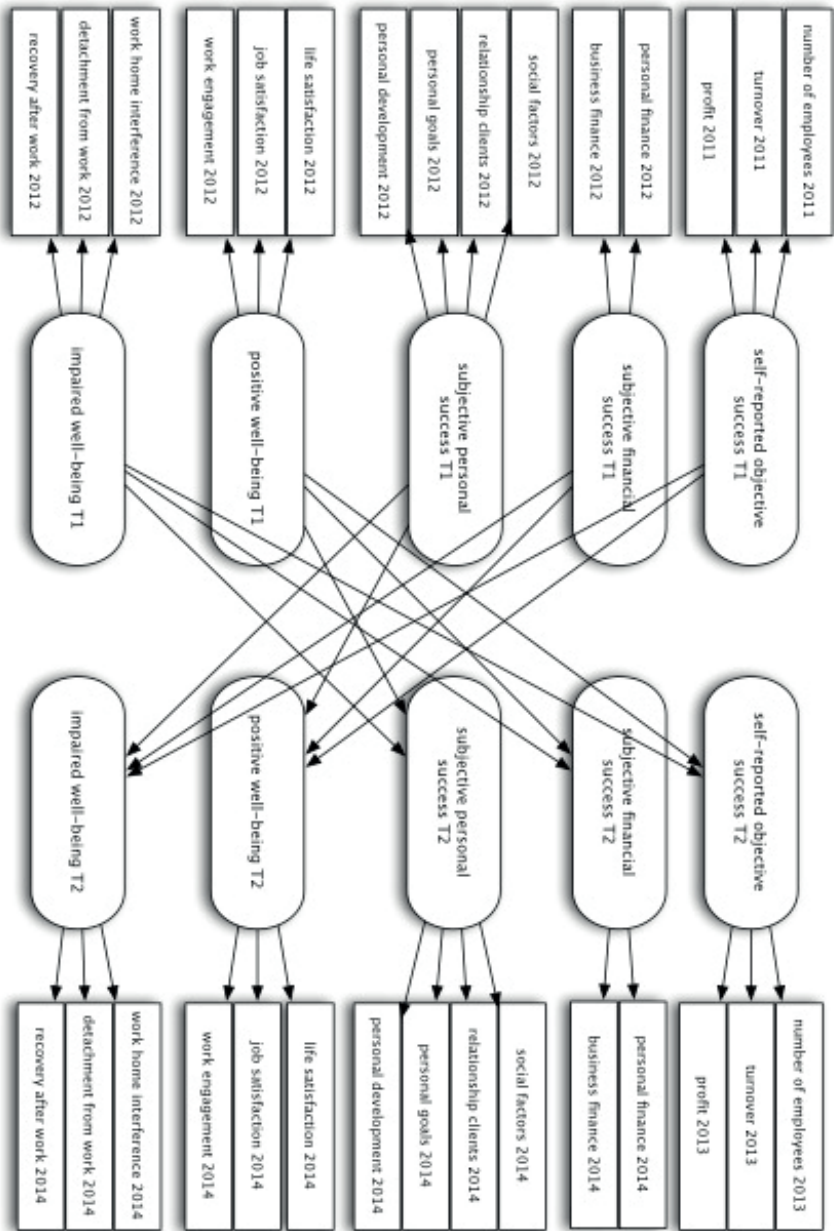
Secondly, we contribute by using multiple measures of business performance as recommended in previous studies (e.g. Murphy et al., 1996; Venkatraman and Ramanujam, 1986). The most common way to measure entrepreneurial business success is by means of financial parameters, such as turnover, profit, market leadership, and number of employees (Cooper et al., 1994; Van Praag and Versloot, 2007). Over the last decade however, there is a growing interest in the more subjective measures of success, like autonomy (Kuratko et al., 1997), personal satisfaction and growth (Walker and Brown, 2004), customer satisfaction (Reijonen and Komppula, 2007), family security (Kuratko et al., 1997; Shane et al., 2003) and flexibility (Walker and Brown, 2004). Hence, this study will include these subjective success indicators as well.

Thirdly, the current study adds to prior literature in adding longitudinal data to the bi-directional relationship of well-being and business performance among entrepreneurs. If we know whether well-being affects business performance, or the other way around, it might not be only interesting to entrepreneurs, but also to business consultants, and policy makers, to invest more time and energy in the well-being of entrepreneurs. This is not just favourable for the entrepreneurs, but also for the economy at large, as entrepreneurs play a major role in the general economy.

The bi-directional relationship between business performance and well-being

To study the bi-directional relationship between well-being and business performance among entrepreneurs, we first investigate whether different dimensions of positive and impaired well-being predict business performance (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: Bi-directional relationships of well-being and performance



Three dimensions for positive well-being are included: job satisfaction; life satisfaction, and work engagement. All these concepts are on the pleasure side of the circumplex model of affective well-being (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011; Russell, 1980; 2003; Russell and Carroll, 1999). This means that all three concepts are all about positive emotions. The difference between the dimensions is that work engagement is positioned on the high activation side of the circumplex model (feeling energized and excited), and both job satisfaction and life satisfaction are positioned on the low activation side (feeling relaxed and calm), see also Study 3 (Chapter 4). Looking at the different dimensions of well-being over time, stability is found. Even a change of jobs or occupations does not seem to change job satisfaction, measured over three and five years (Staw and Ross, 1985). Life satisfaction shows a degree of stability over two years (Headey and Wearing, 1989), and four years (Pavot and Diener, 1993), and work engagement as well is seen as a relatively stable characteristic of a person (Bakker et al., 2008; Seppälä et al., 2014).

We expect a positive relationship between positive well-being and business performance. This assumption is based on earlier studies on the relationship of well-being and business performance among entrepreneurs. Dej (2011) found the positive relationship between job satisfaction and business performance. Study 2 (Chapter 3; Dijkhuizen et al., in press) found that work engagement was positively related with business performance in line with Gorgievski et al. (2014). The stable component of well-being becomes especially relevant. Gorgievski et al. (2010) show that the stable component of well-being in particular predicts the relationship with performance. We therefore assume the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1

Positive well-being at T1 predicts positive business performance at T2.

This study includes three dimensions of impaired well-being: work home interference; recovery after work, and detachment from work. These concepts are indicated as dimensions of work-related strain in Study 2 (Chapter 3; Dijkhuizen et al., in press). The concepts are placed on the displeasure side of the circumplex model of affective well-being (Bakker and Oerlemans, 2011; Russell, 1980; 2003; Russell and Carroll, 1999). Stability of work home interference is found to be moderate (Demerouti et al., 2004; Leiter and Durup, 1996). For the dimensions ‘recovery after work’ and ‘detachment from work’, no longitudinal studies can be found that assess stability over time. With regard to the relationship with performance, we found a negative momentary relationship of work-related strain with perceived business performance in Study 2 (Chapter 3; Dijkhuizen et al., in press). We therefore assume the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2

Impaired well-being at T1 predicts negative business performance at T2.

Different studies among employees show that success makes people happy (e.g. Diener et al., 1993; Locke and Latham, 1990a; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005a; Schneider et al., 2003), but at the same time we expect relative stability for business performance and well-being over the two years' time interval of this study. We therefore assume that if an entrepreneur performs well, he or she can experience positive emotions at that moment, and that the effect is modest on the longer term. The entrepreneur has to go back to business the next day, to continue the business. As economic conditions have not changed considerably in The Netherlands over the years 2012 to 2014 (Bangma and Snel, 2014; Panteia, 2013), we do not expect business performance to have changed considerably in the two year time lag of this study, because of the macroeconomic conditions. Thus, we only expect a moderate but positive impact of business performance on well-being. We therefore formulate our third hypothesis as follows:

Hypothesis 3

Business performance at T1 predicts positive well-being at T2.

The other side of the performance coin is that not all entrepreneurs experience success, but some are facing tough financial times. Literature on business success is amply available, but studies on business failures are harder to find (Singh et al., 2007). Available studies show that failure can lead to negative emotional and traumatic experiences for the business owner (Cope, 2010), such as grief (Shepherd, 2003; 2009; Shepherd et al., 2009), depression, and anger (Singh et al., 2007). A longitudinal study among Dutch agricultural business owners showed that financial problems predicted psychological distress with a one year time interval (Gorgievski et al. 2010). We therefore hypothesize as follows:

Hypothesis 4

Business performance at T1 predicts negative well-being at T2.

Methodology

Procedure and participants

A total of 277 respondents completed an online Dutch questionnaire in the first quarter of 2012 and a total of 121 (response rate of 44%) cooperated in the longitudinal quantitative research in the first quarter of 2014. This two-year interval between the

two measurements appears to be long enough for possible changes in, for instance, business performance measures, but not too long for too much non-response in the sample (see also Frese and Zapf, 1988). The dropouts ($N = 149$ and $N=7$ remained untraceable) were similar to the sample group in 2014 in financial parameters (turnover, and profit), and age of the entrepreneur, but differed in gender. The sample group consisted of more male than female entrepreneurs (53% respectively 47%), contrary to the group of dropouts (44% respectively 56%). Table 1 compares the respondents of 2014 and the dropouts.

Only the 121 respondents who completed both questionnaires in 2012 and 2014, are taken into account for this study. They are individuals, who founded or own a private company (older than one year), and employ less than 250 people in The Netherlands. This is in line with the European Commission that defines small and medium-sized enterprises as companies employing less than 250 people. In the demarcation of entrepreneurs we follow the definition by Van Praag & Versloot (2007) namely “individuals who have started up a business or who own a business, i.e., who are self-employed or the owner-manager of an incorporated business, as entrepreneurs too”.

Measures

Satisfaction was measured by two existing scales. The 5 item version of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985; Pavot & Diener, 1993; Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Diener et al., 2003) was used to measure global life satisfaction. This is a 5-point scale of 1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree with e.g. the question ‘I am satisfied with my life’. The Cronbach’s alpha for this study was 0.86 in 2012 and 0.85 in 2014. The scale was adapted to generate a parallel ‘satisfaction with entrepreneurship’ scale, using the same 5-point scale. This led to the adaptation of the previous question into ‘I am satisfied with entrepreneurship’. The Cronbach’s alpha for this adapted scale was 0.86 in 2012 and 0.88 in 2014.

The 9 item version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003; 2004) was used (7-point scale, 1=never to 7=daily) to measure **work engagement**. An example question was ‘At my work, I feel bursting with energy’; the Cronbach’s alpha was 0.90 in both 2012 and 2014.

Work home interference was measured using the 6-item scale for work-home interference of Geurts et al. (2005) is used, e.g., ‘How often does it happen that you are irritable at home because your work is demanding?’ Responses were given on a 4-point scale with 0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, 3=always. To measure **recovery after work** the 6-item scale of Van Veldhoven et al. (2002; 2014) is applied, e.g. ‘I find it difficult to relax at the end of a working day’. The items were answered on a 4-point scale with 0=never, 1=sometimes, 2=often, 3=always. The third scale is **detachment**

Table 1: Comparison respondents and dropouts

	N = 121 respondents 2014	N = 149 dropouts
Average age entrepreneur	49	47
Company age		
< 3 years	4%	18%
3 – 5 years	23%	21%
6 – 10 years	40%	28%
> 10 years	33%	34%
Gender		
Male	53%	44%
Female	47%	56%
Education		
Lower education	3%	8%
Middle education	12%	11%
Bachelor	46%	44%
Master	39%	37%
% self-employed	58%	55%
Turnover 2011		
Mean	3.23	3.48
< € 25.000	22%	20%
€ 25.000 – € 50.000	20%	17%
€ 50.000 - € 100.000	21%	20%
€ 100.000 - € 500.000	21%	20%
€ 500.000 - € 2.000.000	10%	17%
€ 2.000.000 - € 10.000.000	5%	4%
> € 10.000.000	3%	2%
Profit 2011		
Mean	1.98	2.05
< € 25.000	46%	48%
€ 25.000 – € 50.000	21%	24%
€ 50.000 - € 100.000	21%	11%
€ 100.000 - € 500.000	9%	11%
€ 500.000 - € 2.000.000	3%	4%
€ 2.000.000 - € 10.000.000	2%	1%
> € 10.000.000	0%	1%
Number of employees 2011	7.27	5.72

from work (9 items; e.g., 'During the time after work I get a break from the demands of work') based on the VBBA as well as the Dutch translation (Geurts et al., 2009) of the Recovery Experience Questionnaire of Sonnentag & Fritz (2007). Responses were indicated on a 5-point scale with 1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree.

Business performance was measured using self-reported objective success measures: profit, turnover, and number of employees (Cooper et al., 1994; Van Praag and Versloot, 2007). Furthermore, the subjective personal success indicators were included, using the Subjective Entrepreneurial Success Scale (Dej 2011). The scale uses a 5-point scale running from 1=totally not achieved to 5=totally achieved. It consists of six subscales measuring two underlying factors. The first factor is subjective financial success, consisting of the subscales: 'personal finance' (e.g., 'Rise in (family) income'; 5 items; $\alpha = 0.90$ in both 2012 and 2014), and 'business finance' (e.g., 'Turnover'; 5 items; $\alpha = 0.89$ in 2012 and 0.90 in 2014). This measure relates strongly to objective financial measures such as turnover (growth), profit (growth) and (growth in) number of employees. The second factor is subjective personal success and consists of the subscales: 'social factors' (e.g., 'Social recognition'; 6 items; $\alpha = 0.75$ in 2012 and 0.74 in 2014), 'relationship clients' (e.g., 'Customer loyalty'; 3 items; $\alpha = 0.88$ in 2012 and 0.83 in 2014), 'personal goals' (e.g., 'To maintain personal relationships and networks'; 5 items; $\alpha = 0.74$ in 2012 and 0.81 in 2014), and 'personal development' (e.g., 'Develop yourself personally'; 3 items; $\alpha = 0.71$ in 2012 and 0.73 in 2014).

Method

Data was analysed using structural equations modelling in SmartPLS (Hair, et al., 2014). In this study, the relationship between positive well-being and business performance, and the relationship between impaired well-being and business performance, were analysed in two separate models. The second step was to analyze the full model of significant relationships between both positive and impaired well-being, and business performance. Standardized variables were analysed in a bootstrapping procedure using 5,000 samples of 121 cases. SmartPLS uses a variances based partial least squares approach. Similar to other structural equation modelling programs, PLS accounts for measurement error and therefore provides more accurate estimates of effects than ordinary regression analyses (Chin, 1998). SmartPLS has advantages over other path modelling programmes that use a covariance based structural equation modelling approach (such as AMOS, EQS, and Lisrel), in case of a small data file.

Results

Descriptive findings

Table 2 shows means, standard deviations, alpha reliability coefficients, and correlation coefficients of the study variables, including both positive and impaired well-being.

In this table we find relationships between positive well-being at T1 and business performance at T2, mainly with subjective personal success ($r = 0.43$), but also with subjective financial success ($r = 0.32$) and to a lesser extent with self-reported objective success ($r = 0.11$). Two years later, in the relationship between impaired well-being at T1 and business performance, we find similar results. The correlation coefficient with subjective personal success is highest ($r = -0.44$), followed by subjective personal success ($r = -0.29$) and hardly any relationship with self-reported objective success ($r = 0.02$). In the reversed relationship from business performance at T1 with positive well-being at T2, we find a strong relationship with subjective financial success ($r = 0.34$), with subjective personal success ($r = 0.27$) and, to a lesser extent, with self-reported objective success ($r = 0.17$). With regard to the relationship between business performance and impaired well-being two years later, we find strong relationships with subjective personal success ($r = -0.32$) and far weaker ones with subjective financial success ($r = -0.16$) and self-reported objective success ($r = 0.03$).

On the other hand, we do find stability of the constructs over time: $r = 0.69$ for positive well-being, $r = 0.64$ for impaired well-being, $r = 0.86$ for self-reported objective success, $r = 0.50$ for both subjective financial and subjective success.

The question remains whether there are indeed longitudinal relationships in this time order, or whether the findings relate to stability over time and cross-sectional links. More detailed findings are discussed in the next section.

Measurement Model

In the first place, the quality of the measurement model needs to be assessed before the structural path model can be evaluated. The variables self-reported objective success, subjective financial success, subjective personal success, and well-being, were all modelled as reflective constructs (also refer to Figure 1). Self-reported objective success was formed by the observed indicators 'number of employees', 'turnover', and 'profit'. Observed indicators for subjective financial success were 'personal finance' and 'business finance'. For subjective personal success the indicators were 'social factors', 'relationship clients', 'personal goals', and 'personal development'. 'Life satisfaction', 'job satisfaction', and 'work engagement', were used as observed indicators of the latent factor well-being, to ensure a good coverage of the entire construct. 'Work home interference', 'recovery after work', and 'detachment from work' were the observed indicators for impaired well-being.

Average variance extracted is relatively high for all latent factors, except for subjective personal success, which scored just below the recommended .50 (48 at T1 and 46 at T2). This latent variable most strongly reflected the subscales 'personal goals' with factor loading of .88 at T1 and .90 at T2, and 'personal development' with a factor loading of .78 at T1 and .71 at T2. The subscales 'social factors' and 'relationship

clients' had much lower factor loadings and as such, were less well reflected by the latent construct.

Additionally, as Table 2 shows, the square roots of the AVE's, except for subjective personal success, were well above the highest correlation, indicating fairly good convergent and discriminant validity. This is especially noteworthy for self-reported objective success and subjective financial success factors and the latent factors of similar constructs over time.

Results of the structural model

Analyzing two separate models for positive and impaired well-being

The structural model was first analyzed by measuring two separate models, one for the relationship between positive well-being and business performance (Appendix A), and one for the relationship between impaired well-being and business performance (Appendix B). The reason for this separation is the possible overlap between the constructs. This structural model, which controlled for business owners' gender, showed the following, see Table 3.

First, we study the relationship between positive well-being at T1 and business performance at T2. Positive well-being is explained by 47% of the variance by the model. We find a positive relationship with both subjective personal success at T2 ($\rho = 0.26$, $SE = 0.09$, $T = 3.03$, $p < 0.10$) and subjective financial success at T2 ($\rho = 0.16$, $SE = 0.08$, $T = 2.15$, $p < 0.10$), but not self-reported objective success at T2 ($\rho = -0.01$, $SE = 0.04$, $T = 0.34$, p ns).

In studying the relationship between impaired well-being at T1 and business performance at T2, we find a negative relationship with subjective personal success ($\rho = -0.26$, $SE = 0.09$, $T = 3.02$, $p < 0.10$), and subjective financial success ($\rho = -0.19$, $SE = 0.08$, $T = 2.54$, $p < 0.10$), but not with self-reported objective success ($\rho = -0.00$, $SE = 0.04$, $T = 0.06$, p ns). Impaired well-being is explained by 39% of the variance in the model.

Closer scrutiny of the findings show that for all three performance indicators, the business performance is fairly stable over time. Self-reported objective success at T1 considerably predicted self-reported objective success at T2 ($\rho = 0.85$, $SE = 0.04$, $T = 19.25$, $p < 0.10$ for positive well-being, and $\rho = 0.85$, $SE = 0.04$, $T = 19.76$, $p < 0.10$ for impaired well-being). The same is found for subjective financial success ($\rho = 0.44$, $SE = 0.08$, $T = 5.81$, $p < 0.10$ for positive well-being and $\rho = 0.45$, $SE = 0.07$, $T = 6.57$, $p < 0.10$ for impaired well-being) and to a lesser extent for subjective personal success ($\rho = 0.38$, $SE = 0.08$, $T = 4.66$, $p < 0.10$ for positive well-being and $\rho = 0.38$, $SE = 0.08$, $T = 4.53$, $p < 0.10$ for impaired well-being). Positive well-being is stable as well over T1 and T2 ($\rho = 0.69$, $SE = 0.05$, $T = 14.47$, $p < 0.10$), just as impaired well-being ($\rho = 0.63$, $SE = 0.06$, $T = 9.81$, $p < 0.10$).

Table 2: Alpha reliability coefficient, Average Variance Extracted (between brackets on the diagonal) and correlation coefficients between the row study variables (N=121)

gender										
	self-reported objective success T1	subjective financial success T1	subjective personal success T1	positive well- being T1	impaired well- being T1	self- reported objective success T2	subjective financial success T2	subjective personal success T2	positive well- being T2	impaired well- being T2
gender	1.00									
Time 1										
self-reported objective										
success T1	-0.16	(.73/.65)								
subjective financial		0.32	(.68/.74)							
success T1	0.01									
subjective personal		-0.23	0.26	(.65/.59)						
success T1	0.10		0.15	0.37	0.42	(.71/.64)				
positive well-being T1	0.06		0.02	-0.21	-0.44		(.87/.74)			
impaired well-being T1	0.02									
Time 2										
self-reported objective										
success T2	-0.24	0.86	0.28	-0.24	0.11	0.02	(.78/.70)			
subjective financial		0.26	0.50	0.12	0.32	-0.29		0.38	(.85/.87)	
success T2	-0.04		0.09	0.50	0.43	-0.44		-0.16		0.13
subjective personal	0.03		0.17	0.34	0.27	-0.37		0.21	(.59/.55)	
success T2	-0.04		0.03	-0.16	-0.34	0.64		-0.03		0.53
positive well-being T2	0.05			-0.32	-0.47			-0.24	(.73/.65)	
impaired well-being T2										(.89/.77)

Analyzing full model

With the two separate models (see Table 3), we took a second step and analyzed the full model, including both positive and impaired well-being and measured the significant paths, see Table 4.

This model only shows a significant relationship between positive well-being and subjective personal success ($\rho = 0.20$, $SE = 0.09$, $T = 2.22$, $p < 0.10$). For impaired well-being we find significant relationships with both subjective personal and subjective financial success ($\rho = -0.18$, $SE = 0.09$, $T = 2.03$, $p < 0.10$ for subjective personal success, and $\rho = -0.15$, $SE = 0.08$, $T = 2.56$, $p < 0.10$ for subjective financial success).

Taking the separate models and the full model into consideration, we partly confirm Hypothesis 1. Positive well-being predicts subjective personal success and subjective financial success in the separate models, but only subjective personal success in the full model. Hypothesis 2 is also partly confirmed. In the separate models and in the full model impaired well-being predict both subjective personal success and subjective financial success.

In Hypotheses 3 and 4, the relationships between business performance at T1 and both positive and impaired well-being at T2 were formulated. Contradictory to the expectations, the relationship between business performance at T1 and both positive and impaired well-being at T2 is not significant, thus rejecting Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4. The R square of the performance measured are .76 for self-reported objective success, .33 for subjective personal success, and .28 for subjective financial success.

Discussion

This study among 121 Dutch entrepreneurs investigated the bi-directional relationships between positive and impaired well-being with business performance over two years of time. Results indicated that positive well-being at T1 predicted subjective financial and subjective personal business performance at T2, but not self-reported objective success. This result is seen while analyzing the relationships with business performance separately for positive well-being and impaired well-being. In the full model, positive well-being only predicted subjective personal success. We therefore partly confirmed Hypothesis 1. These results are in line with earlier findings, such as the meta-analysis of Lyumomirsky et al. (2005a), showing several longitudinal studies who found relationships between positive well-being and different performance measures. Separate studies show the relationship of positive well-being with, for example, longer-term income among employees (Marks and Fleming, 1999; Diener

Table 3: SmartPLS output separate models

positive well-being

	Original Sample	Sample Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	T Statistics
gender -> objective success T2	-0,1028	-0,1081	0,0463	0,0463	2,2209
objective success T1 -> objective success T2	0,8489	0,8453	0,0441	0,0441	19,2547
subj personal succes T1 -> subj personal success T2	0,3882	0,4213	0,0834	0,0834	4,6552
subj financial success T1 -> subj financial success T2	0,4355	0,4583	0,075	0,075	5,8074
positive well-being T1 -> objective success T2	-0,013	-0,0206	0,0376	0,0376	0,3446
positive well-being T1 -> subj personal success T2	0,2636	0,2602	0,087	0,087	3,0294
positive well-being T1 -> subj financial success T2	0,1637	0,1548	0,076	0,076	2,154
positve well-being T1 -> positive well-being T2	0,6862	0,6921	0,0474	0,0474	14,4689

impaired well-being

	Original Sample	Sample Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	T Statistics
gender -> objective success T2	-0,1039	-0,1096	0,0461	0,0461	2,2531
subj financial success T1 -> subj financial success T2	0,4527	0,4739	0,0689	0,0689	6,5694
objective success T1 -> objective success T2	0,8468	0,8425	0,0429	0,0429	19,7601
subj personal success T1 -> subj personal success T2	0,3754	0,4073	0,0828	0,0828	4,5339
impaired well-being T1 -> subj financial success T2	-0,1945	-0,1837	0,0766	0,0766	2,54
impaired well-being T1 -> objective success T2	-0,0025	0,0005	0,0395	0,0395	0,0629
impaired well-being T1 -> subj personal success T2	-0,2629	-0,2567	0,0869	0,0869	3,024
impaired well-being T1 -> impaired well-being T2	0,626	0,6347	0,0638	0,0638	9,8083

et al., 2002), supervisory ratings over time (Wright and Staw, 1999, Wright and Cropanzano, 2000; Wright et al., 2007), and turnover intentions (Ostroff, 1992).

In studying the relationship between impaired well-being at T1 and business performance at T2, we found a negative relationship with the feeling of personal and financial success, but not self-reported objective success measures. This is the case when analyzing the separate models and the full model, therefore Hypothesis 2 is partly confirmed. The results are according to earlier findings among entrepreneurs in a longitudinal study among Dutch agricultural business owners (Gorgievski et al., 2010; Gorgievski-Duijvesteijn et al., 2000; 2005), showing that poor mental and physical well-being predicts financial hardship and poor financial business performance over one, two and even ten years of time.

The expected positive relationship between business performance at T1, and both positive and impaired well-being at T2, was not confirmed, rejecting Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4. An explanation for the rejection of Hypothesis 3 could be that, in line with other studies (Lykken and Tellegen, 1996; Headey and Wearing, 1989; Tellegen et al., 1988), positive well-being was found to be very stable for entrepreneurs over two years of time. We assume that the level of positive well-being is not easily changed, because of the so-called 'happiness set point', a genetically determined

level of well-being that is assumed to be stable over time (Lyubomirsky, 2005b). In line with this set point, Headey and Wearing (1989) presume that people have an 'equilibrium level' of well-being and only in the case of a life event that differs from their level, well-being changes. As we found business performance to be somewhat stable over time, we assume that any possible effect of business performance on well-being is probably too small to be considered a 'life event', or much shorter-lived than two years. Frederickson (2001) stated that it is challenging to acquire emotional experiences in the work place, because emotions are usually short-lived. After a good performance, the entrepreneur must go back to his or her daily work and the issues of the day and the effect may wear off. What has happened in the past, is no guarantee for future business success. Investing in, for example, more staff or outsourcing activities to lower the pressure on entrepreneurs, might need good business performance over a longer time frame than two years. Especially in the current economic circumstances, entrepreneurs might wait longer than two years before investing their financial buffer in attracting staff or outsourcing activities. Another explanation could be that the majority of entrepreneurs in the sample are self-employed, so do not have any staff. As found in the pre-study (Appendix A), entrepreneurs seem to identify themselves with the company and perceive 'oneness' with the company in line with the concept of 'organizational identification' (Edwards, 2005; Van Knippenberg et al., 2007; Mael & Ashforth, 1992), and the 'parenthood metaphor' (Cardon et al., 2005). This might lead to the entrepreneur's decision to continue to do everything himself or herself, and to not hire staff or outsource activities.

An explanation for the rejection of both Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4 might be that although no differences in (company) age, gender, education, turnover, profit and number of employees, were found between the respondents and dropouts, there might be other differences in the sample. Possible there are business circumstances or events in their private life, that have affected the outcomes, such as a change of business partner, new investors or illness.

The findings are not in line with the longitudinal study of Schneider et al. (2003), who found a reciprocal relationship between job satisfaction and organizational and market performance in a sample of employees in American corporations. However, the findings are similar with the two-wave cross-lagged study, with on average a two year time interval, of Van de Voorde and Van Veldhoven (2007) between organizational climate and organizational performance. They found that organizational climate predicted performance, but they did not find the bi-directional relationship. Our results can be explained by the long time lag of two years. The effects of good performance on being satisfied and engaged as an entrepreneur might be a shorter term phenomenon.

With these results, the fifth research question Are well-being and business

Table 4: SmartPLS output full significant effects only model

	Original Sample	Sample Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	T Statistics
subj personal success T1 -> subj personal success T2	0,3273	0,3545	0,0909	0,0909	3,5991
subj financial success T1 -> subj financial success T2	0,4527	0,4754	0,0685	0,0685	6,6117
positive well-being T1 -> subj personal success T2	0,203	0,2043	0,0916	0,0916	2,2167
positive well-being T1 -> positive well-being T2	0,6877	0,6952	0,0465	0,0465	14,7806
impaired well-being T1 -> impaired well-being T2	0,6259	0,6339	0,0628	0,0628	9,9684
impaired well-being T1 -> subj personal success T2	-0,1839	-0,1797	0,0905	0,0905	2,0318
impaired well-being T1 -> subj financial success T2	-0,1945	-0,184	0,0761	0,0761	2,5556

performance in entrepreneurs bi-directionally related?, is answered.

Limitations and future research

We acknowledge several limitations in this study. First of all, we have a relatively small sample group of 121 respondents. Future research with larger sample groups is recommended. Besides which, we had a selective group of respondents in 2014, as only entrepreneurs still in business in 2014 could complete all the questions. However, in comparing the sample group with the dropouts on business performance measures, only minor differences could be found.

Secondly, entrepreneurs work in a broader economic, political and societal environment. The indicators coming from these different factors influence business performance, but are not included in our study. However, these factors could be interesting to increase our understanding of the relationship between well-being and business performance.

Thirdly, data on business performance and well-being were gathered by self-report measures. Using self-report measures for well-being, however, is valid (Sandvik et al., 1993). For business performance, multiple measures were used as recommended (e.g. Murphy et al., 1996; Venkatraman and Ramanujam, 1986). In our study, the observed indicators, except for subjective personal success, reflected the low average variance extracted. We found considerable differences in factor loadings that might need some further research. Apart from that, we also advise to use a combination of objective and subjective business performance measures in future studies (Pérez and Canino, 2009). These measures could be requested from the Tax Department or the Chamber of Commerce.

Fourthly, there is a limitation of our study in the time frame of data gathering, both for the two-year interval, as for the two time period measurement. The two-year interval might be too long to measure the bi-directional relationship between business performance and well-being for entrepreneurs. Six months or one year would possibly have offered more insight into the shorter term effects, if any, of well-

being and business performance. The effect of business performance on positive and/or impaired well-being might be visible in a shorter time frame. According to the two time period measurements, Schneider et al. (1998) states that this provides “a relatively weak basis for reaching conclusions about causal priority” (p. 837). This might be a limitation of the present study and future longitudinal studies on this topic are recommended.

Implications

The relationship between positive and impaired well-being and business performance seems to be stable over a two year time lag, but is not bi-directional. Positive and impaired well-being partly predict business performance, but business performance in turn does not predict future well-being. In the case of the ‘happy-productive worker hypothesis’, employers would need to do their utmost to increase positive well-being and to decrease impaired well-being. In literature, different personal interventions are mentioned, such as developing effective coping skills to alleviate exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2001), executing leisure activities with friends (Sonnentag, 2001), psychological detachment (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007), or more organizational adaptations such as effective employee selection, training and competitive pay (eg. Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Koys, 2001; Ulrich et al., 1991). Entrepreneurs, however, need to deal with their well-being themselves. There is no employer to facilitate interventions. From the JD-R Model and the results from Study 2 (Chapter 3) we can confirm that lowering job demands will decrease the level of impaired well-being, which leads to higher business performance in the future. On the other hand, increasing positive well-being by increasing job resources (see Study 2) would lead to higher business performance as well. There are interventions in lowering job demands and increasing job resources that an entrepreneur can do himself or herself, see Study 2 (Chapter 3; Dijkhuizen et al., in press).

Looking at the possibility of increasing positive well-being some theoretical perspectives and empirical data suggest that happiness can be increased (Fordyce, 1977; 1983; Seligman, 2004; 2006; Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), others state that it cannot, according to the meta analysis of Lyubomirsky et al. (2005b). Lyubomirsky et al. (2001; 2005b; Boehm and Lyubomirsky, 2008) have suggested that happiness is 50 percent genetically determined, 10 percent caused by the environment which leaves 40 percent ‘nurture’. It is assumed that a large part of happiness is changeable by intentional activities and practices over a longer period of time (Fisher, 2010; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005b). So, one needs to put commitment and effort into the activity to increase one’s happiness level (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005b, p 119 and 121). Hopefully entrepreneurs will take that next step.

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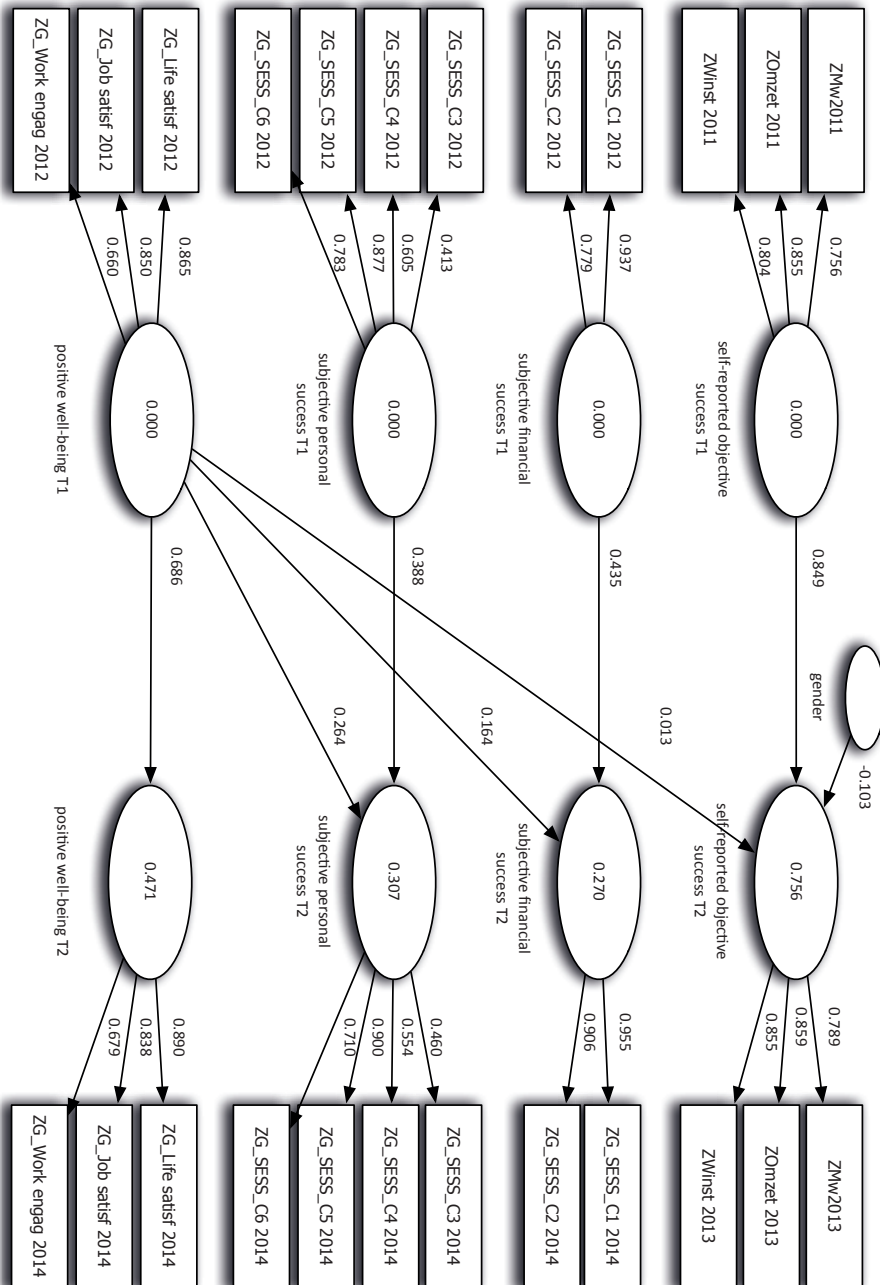
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What comes first, well-being or performance?

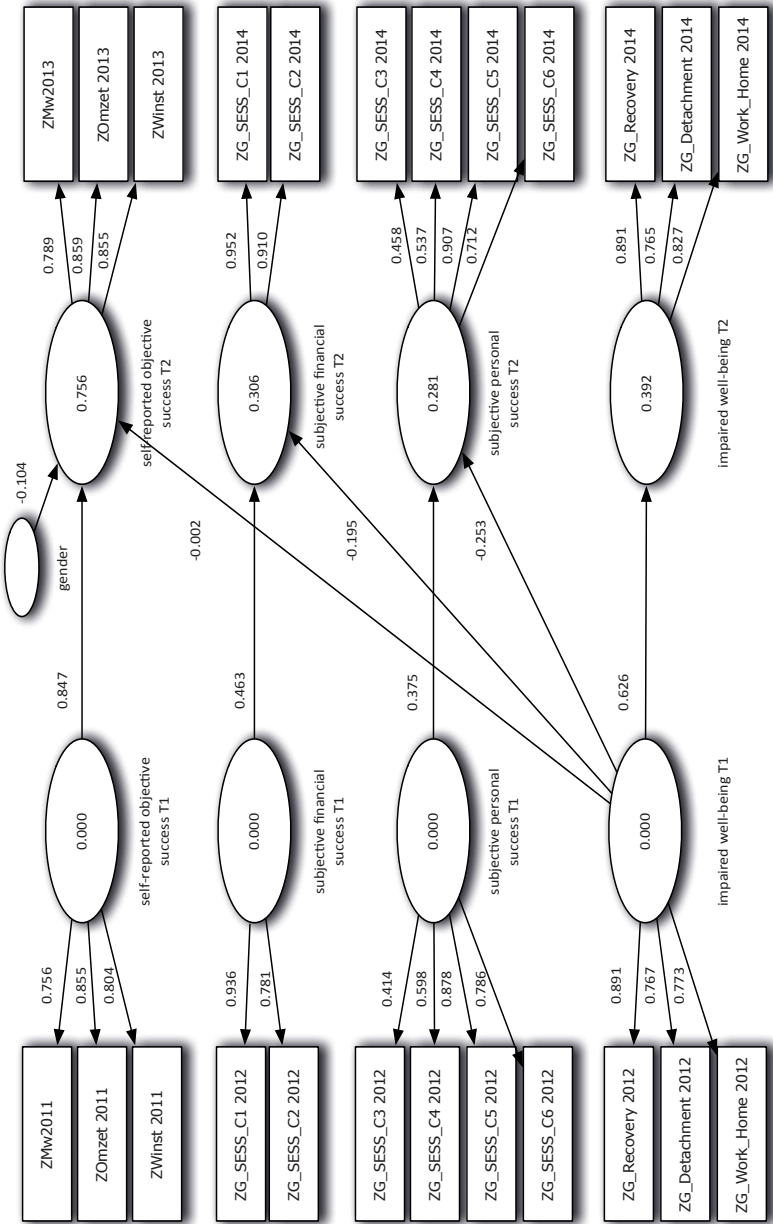
APPENDICES CHAPTER FIVE

5

Appendix A: Results SmartPLS for impaired well-being



Appendix B: Results SmartPLS for positive well-being



Chapter Six

GENERAL DISCUSSION



"I have to balance my work and private life very well with raising small children. Time management is an important tool to be able to do all the things I want to do. In this way I can enjoy my passion for food and the 'good life'."

Lotje van der Heijden, owner 'VitaMobiel'

Academic contributions

This thesis is set up around the constructs of entrepreneurial success and well-being, two areas that receive relatively little attention in both the practical and the academic field of entrepreneurship. At conferences and network events, in journals and in magazines the general image of successful entrepreneurship still is, that it is all about the big money earned by ‘cow boys’ in high growth ventures. However, many businessmen and women work hard every day to try to earn enough money to pay their mortgage and to continue their business. Entrepreneurs encounter many challenges, and finding out whether there specific job demands for entrepreneurs exist, which job resources support them and what their effect is on work-related strain, on well-being, and finally on business performance, is of importance not only to the entrepreneurs themselves, but to society as a whole. This more psychological view on entrepreneurial success and well-being and the processes involved, is a fairly new and hardly explored academic area (e.g. Gorgievski et al., 2011; Kuratko et al., 1997; Wincent & Örtqvist, 2009).

The work of Bakker and Demerouti on job demands and job resources framed in the Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001), was used as the theoretical starting point for this thesis, and elaborated on in more detail in Chapter 1. This model is well-known for research among employees (e.g. Bakker et al., 2003; 2004; Bakker and Demerouti, 2008; Hakanen et al., 2005), but not among entrepreneurs. The pre-study and the four papers are built around this model and provide empirical insight into business success and the well-being of entrepreneurs at a certain point in time, as well as longitudinal. As mentioned in Chapter 1, five research questions were formulated for the various studies. The start of the research program centred on the following research question:

Research question 1 Are there any specific entrepreneurial job demands, apart from regular job demands, for entrepreneurs?

This question formed the focal point of the pre-study among ten entrepreneurs (Appendix A). During this study, various job demands, apparently specific to entrepreneurs, were extracted from the interviews, for instance ‘(feeling of) 24/7 availability’; ‘(feeling of) 100% commitment’; ‘broader and greater responsibility’; ‘uncertainty’ and ‘risk’. These demands items were made that led to the first study (Chapter 2) with research question 2:

Research question 2 Can distinct dimensions of specific entrepreneurial job demands be measured reliably, and do such measures show valid correlations with work-related strain and work-related well-being?

Factor analysis showed three dimensions of specific entrepreneurial job demands: 'time demands'; 'uncertainty and risk'; and 'responsibility'. 'Time demands' refers to the feeling of 24/7 availability, having the company in one's mind 24 hours a day, and 100 percent dedication. 'Uncertainty and risk' is about coping with uncertainty regarding the functioning of oneself and the company, handling risks and making decisions. The third dimension, 'responsibility', is the feeling of 100 percent responsibility for the satisfaction of customers and the functioning of the company. Finding specific job demands for entrepreneurs is in line with the JD-R Model (Chapter 1), as one of the key assumptions in the model is, that every occupation may have its own specific work characteristics (Bakker et al., 2004). For other occupations, specific job demands had been found previously, such as for teachers (Hakanen et al, 2006), nurses (Van der Heijden et al., 2008), and home care workers (Bakker et al, 2003). On the other hand, job demands such as role ambiguity, role conflicts, work load, and time pressure are regarded as general job demands (Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). In their meta analysis, Schaufeli & Enzmann (1998) found that these general job demands correlated higher with burnout than recipient-related stressors. This was not totally confirmed in Study 1 (Chapter 2) as correlations of specific job demands and more general job demands with work-related strain, showed very small differences. Looking at the separate dimensions of entrepreneurial job demands, the factors 'time demands' and 'uncertainty and risk' showed moderately high correlations with work-related strain and subjective well-being. In executing the multiple linear regression the importance of the more specific entrepreneurial job demands is confirmed with 'time demands' as the most influential variable on two scales of work-related strain, and 'uncertainty and risk' for the third measure of entrepreneurial strain. For well-being, the most important influencer was 'uncertainty and risk' for the three scales used (job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and work engagement).

This study increases our understanding of specific job demands for entrepreneurs, and adds a validated scale to the academic arena, the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale (Appendix D) with three dimensions. This scale is developed and validated in Study 1, and can be used in further research, besides regular job demands, in studying work-related strain and well-being among entrepreneurs. The relationship between job demands and job resources with work-related strain and work-related well-being is further elaborated in Study 2 (Chapter 3) with the third research question:

Research question 3 How does the stress process and motivational process within the JD-R Model work for entrepreneurs in relationship with subjective personal and financial success?

Based on the JD-R Model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001), the stress and motivational process towards business success, both subjective financial and subjective personal success, is studied. In studying both processes, specific entrepreneurial job demands were taken into account, besides the general job demands. For job resources the four most often mentioned resources in the pre-study were: 'support', 'autonomy', 'outsourcing', and 'feedback'. Furthermore, 'independence', 'job variety', 'learning opportunities', and 'work organization' were taken into account as more general job resources (Bakker et al., 2010; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Van Veldhoven et al., 2002). Next to these job demands and job resources, different scales for work-related strain and well-being and various measures for business performance were included in the questionnaire.

The results show that the JD-R model does apply to a large extent to business owners as well. As predicted by the JD-R Model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001), both high job demands and low job resources predicted work-related strain. Especially the entrepreneurial job demands 'time demands' and 'uncertainty and risk', but also the regular job demand 'quantitative workload' press heavily on work-related strain. Workload, or overload, as a general demand also shows a high correlation on strain among employees, in line with previous studies (e.g. Alarcon, 2011; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Van den Broeck et al., 2011). The expected positive relationship between job resources and work engagement was also confirmed. The most influential job resources were 'work organization', and 'feedback', followed by 'autonomy', and 'learning opportunities'. In different studies among employees these job resources similarly show positive relationships with work engagement (e.g. Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Van den Broeck et al., 2011). However, in contrast to findings of other studies (Bakker et al., 2010; Hakanen et al., 2005), high job demands did not relate to low work engagement, only having low job resources did.

Regarding the determinants of subjective success, we found a direct, significant relation between work-related strain and both subjective personal and subjective financial success. Moreover, a significant indirect effect was found for job demands on both experienced financial and personal success through work-related strain, which indicates that job demands are indirectly related to the business owners' performance. As for work engagement, the relation between work engagement and subjective success was only partially confirmed. Contrary to our expectations, entrepreneurs'

work engagement only predicted subjective personal success, not subjective financial success, meaning that engaged entrepreneurs did not assess their subjective financial success differently from less engaged entrepreneurs. The relationship between job resources and subjective personal success, not financial success, was mediated by work engagement.

The net result, from a JD-R perspective, is that the strain-related process (impact of job demands via work-related strain) is more relevant to entrepreneurial feelings of success than the motivational process (impact of job resources via work engagement). This is especially true for feelings of financial success. This result is quite remarkable, since entrepreneurs are known for their high work engagement (Gorgievski et al., 2010a; Smulders, 2006). The explanation for this outcome could be that there is a ceiling effect for work engagement. Possibly, having a high level of work engagement is a basic condition for successful business ownership, because of which it no longer discriminates between more and less successful entrepreneurs in a sample of established entrepreneurs. The average work engagement in our sample group was much higher than the statistical norms among the working population (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). As we already know that entrepreneurs are far more engaged than employees (Gorgievski et al., 2010a; Smulders, 2006) there is less variance in work engagement, diminishing the strength of the relationship (Gorgievski et al., 2010a). We contributed to the academic field by exploring the widely acknowledged JD-R Model for entrepreneurs, by integrating specific entrepreneurial job demands, but also by focusing on psychological, rather than on business outcomes of entrepreneurship.

In the third study (see Chapter 4) the construct of well-being is further elaborated on by connecting four dimensions of work-related affective well-being (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011; Russell, 1980; 2003; Russell and Carroll, 1999) to business performance. The study answers the fourth research question:

Research question 4 Which work-related well-being type of entrepreneur achieves best business performance?

For this study, the circumplex model of work-related affective well-being is used as theoretical framework consisting of two axes: pleasure-displeasure and high/low activation (Russell, 1980; 2003; Larsen & Diener, 1992). Only recently, four types of work-related well-being were integrated in the circumplex model: workaholism, exhaustion, work engagement, and job satisfaction (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011). Using validated scales for all of these four concepts, it was found that large numbers in the sample of entrepreneurs score above the statistical norms in the (working) population on three out of the four dimensions. This result thus provokes the idea, that the

circumplex can be used as a person typology (Bakker et al., 2011b).

Entrepreneurs in the sample seem to be energized (work engaged) and fatigued (exhausted) at the same time. These dimensions are opposites, and according to the circumplex model of work-related affective well-being (Russell, 1980; 2003; Russell & Carroll, 1999), a person cannot feel these bipolar emotions at the same time. The results, however, could be seen in the light of the academic discussion on whether pleasure and displeasure are indeed opposites (Green et al., 1993; Russell & Carroll, 1999), or two independent unipolar factors (Borgatta, 1961; McNair & Lorr, 1964) instead of bipolar (Green et al., 1993; Russell & Carroll, 1999).

The outcome provides a more comprehensive understanding of the four dimensions in the circumplex model for entrepreneurs. The influence of the four dimensions on business performance indicators (turnover, profit, and number of employees) is also investigated, as an extension to existing research. Results show that working excessively, followed by high job satisfaction, positively effects business success the most. When combined, working excessively in combination with being engaged gives the entrepreneur more turnover and profit than only working excessively or being engaged. The lowest business performance is reported by compulsively working entrepreneurs.

The data of Study 1, 2, and 3 (Chapter 2, 3, and 4) are cross-sectional and gathered in the first quarter of 2012 (for the complete questionnaire see Appendix B) and/or in the first quarter of 2014 (see Appendix C). Measuring at a certain point in time does not give any insight into the relationship between business performances on well-being in a longer term. For that reason, Study 4 (Chapter 5) was developed, to investigate this longitudinal bi-directional relationship with a two-year interval. The fifth research question is:

Research question 5 Are well-being and business performance in entrepreneurs bi-directionally related?

For the construct of well-being, both positive well-being (job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and work engagement), and impaired well-being (work home interference, recovery after work, detachment from work) are taken into account while studying the bi-directionality. The results of this study show that well-being and business performance are fairly stable over the time span of two years. In the bi-directionality we only found that positive and impaired well-being in 2012 predicts business performance in 2014, mainly subjective personal success, and to a lesser extent subjective financial success, but not self-reported objective success. These results

extend the cross-sectional information from Study 2 and 3.

That bi-directionality was not found as business performance did not predict well-being over a two year interval. An explanation for this could be that the so-called 'happiness set point' results in a well-being stability over time (Lyubomirsky, 2005). The possible effect of business performance on well-being might be too small to cause a change in well-being, or is much shorter lived than two years.

The contribution of this study to the academic field is threefold. Firstly, the study included multiple measures of business performance, such as self-reported objective success (turnover, profit, and number of employees), subjective financial success measures (e.g. income, income security and market share), and subjective personal success indicators (e.g. relationships with clients and personal development). Secondly, the study increases our understanding of different positive and negative dimensions of well-being among entrepreneurs. Thirdly, longitudinal studies among entrepreneurs on the relationship between business performance and well-being are lacking. In this, we built upon the 'happy-productive worker hypothesis' (e.g. Paauwe and Richardson, 1997; Taris & Schreurs, 2009; Wright & Staw, 1999) used in human resources research, and upon the 'high performance cycle' (Locke and Latham, 1990a; 1990b; 2002) used in the psychological arena.

In the pre-study and the four empirical studies together, we found challenging results with respect to a few well-known theoretical models and theories: Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001); circumplex model (Russell, 1980; 2003); happy-productive worker hypothesis (Paauwe and Richardson, 1997; Taris & Schreurs, 2009; Wright & Staw, 1999); and high performance cycle (Locke and Latham, 1990; 2002). In Study 1 we did find specific job demands for entrepreneurs in line with the characteristic of the JD-R Model that every occupation may have its own specific working conditions (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). The results confirm that specific entrepreneurial job demands are just as important as more general job demands in explaining well-being in entrepreneurs. It is therefore recommended to take the specific entrepreneurial job demands into account besides the regular job demands while studying work-related strain and well-being among entrepreneurs.

The results in Study 2 show that the JD-R Model largely applies to entrepreneurs. In the strain process of the model, both high job demands and low job resources predicted work-related strain, and work-related strain in turn significantly related to both subjective personal success and subjective financial success (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). In the motivational process the positive relationship between job resources and work engagement was confirmed, but not the relationship between job demands and work engagement (Bakker et al., 2010;

Hakanen et al., 2005). The link between work engagement and subjective success was only partially confirmed. In sum, the impact of work engagement on feelings of business success is much smaller than that of work-related strain in entrepreneurs. These findings are important, as studies on entrepreneurial strain are not widespread, and results indicate that more empirical studies on the strain processes of entrepreneurship are needed. The findings from this sample group of entrepreneurs might be appropriate for other occupations as well. Besides which, the results show the impact on psychological, rather than on business outcomes of entrepreneurship.

The circumplex model was used as theoretical framework for Study 3. The scores of the sample of entrepreneurs on the four dimensions of work-related affective well-being in this model were very high, thus defying the idea of using the model as a person typology. Entrepreneurs in the sample seem to be work engaged and exhausted at the same time, which seems contrary to the presumptions of the circumplex model (Russell, 1980; 2003; Russell & Carroll, 1999). This result extends the academic discussion on whether pleasure and displeasure are indeed opposites (Green et al., 1993; Russell & Carroll, 1999) or two independent unipolar factors (Borgatta, 1961; McNair & Lorr, 1964) instead of bipolar (Green et al., 1993; Russell & Carroll, 1999).

In Study 4, the theory on the well-being – performance relationship, as seen in the ‘happy-productive worker hypothesis’ and the ‘high performance cycle’, was tested in its bi-directionality over a time span of two years. The bi-directional relationship was not found. The study shows evidence for well-being in 2012 predicting business performance in 2014, but not the other way around. These findings are important for future research into long term effects of well-being and business performance.

From the four studies in this thesis we gained valuable insights into the entrepreneurial job demands, the way they relate to work-related strain and well-being, and finally, self-reported success. The overarching research question can be answered with reference to the pre-study and the four studies:

Which factors influence success and well-being among entrepreneurs, and how are these dimensions related?

Practical contributions

The outcomes of the four studies carry a few important contributions for entrepreneurs, policy makers, business consultants, trainers and coaches. One of the outcomes is the importance of work-related strain for entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurial stress is not a topic that is discussed among business owners, in the media or on stage, but from this thesis we confirm the importance of this construct, not only for the mental

well-being of entrepreneurs, but also in relation to financial business performance. Entrepreneurs can even achieve a competitive advantage over other entrepreneurs if they can learn to deal effectively with job demands and work-related strain. Learning how to cope with job demands – especially ‘uncertainty and risk’, ‘quantitative workload’, and ‘time demands’ - and work-related strain, should therefore be high on the agenda of business consultants, trainers and mentors. If they can assist business owners in the elimination and prevention of work-related strain, entrepreneurs will be able to achieve higher subjective financial and personal success, which is favourable for the individual entrepreneur, but also for the economy at large, and in fact for the whole society.

But how can they, in practice, assist the individual entrepreneur in dealing with job demands? In the first study we developed and validated the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale which can be used as a measure in assessing the weight of the job demands for individual entrepreneurs. Based on the outcomes, a business consultant or coach can find the centre of gravity in the job demands that can cause entrepreneurial stress. Individual coaching or mentoring can help the entrepreneur in coping with the job demands, or in lowering specific demands. Next to coaching, training programs could be developed specifically for entrepreneurs on, for example, time management, on how business owners can deal with a high work load, or on making risk analyses.

On the motivational side, the entrepreneur can procure more job resources, such as ‘work organization’ and ‘feedback’. Consultants, business networks, trainers and mentors can build programs or use appropriate coaching tools to help entrepreneurs use available resources. Getting more out of the job resources can enhance work engagement which would lead to good business performance. If the entrepreneur can be assisted to organize his or her work and, for example, generate feedback on his or her performance, his or her well-being and long term business success will increase, according to the research.

Looking at work engagement among entrepreneurs, we assumed a ceiling effect in Study 2 (Chapter 3). Work engagement is the main driver for success in different types of paid jobs, and to entrepreneurs, a high level of work engagement in specific is a basic condition for successful business ownership. The present level of work engagement might be tested in a conversation or by means of a digital scan. If the entrepreneur shows a low level of work engagement, a business mentor can start up interventions to augment this level. As mentioned before, increasing work engagement is possible by procuring more job resources, but also by adding to personal resources (Bakker et al., 2011a; Cifre et al., 2011; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; 2009a; 2009b). Bakker et al. (2011a) also suggests training and coaching to increase positive affect, emotional intelligence, and positive adaptive behavioural strategies. Studies on

interventions indicate that interventions to improve work engagement exist and have been tested, but require a sustained effort (Bakker et al., 2011a; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2010).

Looking at well-being in general, according to Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) there are contradictory theories about whether or not the level of subjective well-being can be changed. They propose that someone's "chronic happiness level is governed by 3 major factors: a genetically determined set point for happiness, happiness-relevant circumstantial factors, and happiness-relevant activities and practices" (p. 111). They assume that happiness can be enhanced and maintained at the new and higher level when relevant, intentional activities are executed over longer periods of time (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). This is in line with the 'broaden-and-build model' of Fredrickson (e.g. Fredrickson, 2000; 2001; Fredrickson and Branigan, 2005; Fredrickson and Joiner, 2002), and the work of Seligman (Seligman, 2006; Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). A further look into the field of 'positive psychology' might give trainers and coaches tools, such as mindfulness, meditation, and Values In Action Inventory of Strengths (Fredrickson, et al., 2008; Park et al., 2004; Warren Brown and Ryan, 2003; 2004), of increasing the level of well-being of entrepreneurs.

Limitations

We acknowledge several limitations of this dissertation. For the pre-study (Appendix A), only ten entrepreneurs were interviewed, which was adequate for the purpose of the investigation, but still constitutes a rather small group. In the first study on the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale (Chapter 2) the 'responsibility' dimension with only three items showed low Cronbach's alpha (see 'implications for future research'). Adding more items might have given more insight into the influences on well-being and work-related strain, and the scale is only tested in The Netherlands, which limits generalizability of the findings reported.

In the second study (Chapter 3), cross-sectionality is mentioned as a limitation, but a longitudinal study was executed at a later stage in Study 4 (Chapter 5). Another limitation is the lack of combined objective and subjective performance measures. All studies in this thesis rely on self-reported measures of well-being and business success. In case of self-reports, we can question whether the instrument is a valid measure. In a study of entrepreneurs, it is difficult to use supervisor or peer ratings as entrepreneurs often work independently. According to Drenth and Sijsma (2006), self-assessments can be a valuable method, and Sandvik, Diener and Seidlitz (1993) have concluded that conventional self-report instruments validly measure the subjective well-being construct, and that alternative, non-self-report measures are useful for providing a comprehensive theoretical account of happiness and life satisfaction.

To make the studies reliable, widely validated measures were used for the different constructs, not only for well-being, but also for job demands, job resources, and work-related strain. For business performance, multiple measures were taken into account, as recommended (Murphy et al, 1996; Venkatraman and Ramanujam, 1986). However, objective business performance measures could have been included by asking financial statements from the respondents themselves, or from the register at the Chamber of Commerce. This would have taken a lot more time to acquire and up-to-date financial information would be difficult to acquire in time, which is the reason for not gathering these data. Another limitation in Study 2 is that contextual factors, such as economic, political, legal or social factors, may influence the different constructs but were not taken into account while studying the different constructs.

In the third study (Chapter 4), the use of an adapted, not validated version of the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) to measure job satisfaction, is a limitation. However, the SWLS is a reliable scale for life satisfaction and widely recognized, and the adapted version proved to be very reliable in our study as well.

In the fourth study (Chapter 5) we acknowledge a few other limitations. First of all, only 121 entrepreneurs were part of the sample group which is quite low, and this group was rather selective, as entrepreneurs could only complete the second questionnaire if they were still in business two years later. Another limitation is the low average variance extracted for subjective personal success. This needs some further analysis in the future. The last limitation is the time span of data gathering, both the two year time interval and the two time period measurement. Measuring from 2012 until 2014 might have been too long for the longitudinal relationship between business performance and well-being. For example: six months or one year might have given us more insight into the bi-directionality. According to the two time period measurement, this might be a limitation of the present study and more measurement moments might have given more information about the bi-directionality.

Next to the specific limitations from the different studies, we can add a few general limitations of this thesis. Firstly, the number of respondents, 277 in Study 1 and 2; 135 respondents in Study 3; and 121 in Study 4, is relatively low. The respondents were found by announcements in different LinkedIn groups and from the existing business network. The length of the questionnaire is probably the reason why many respondents did not finish the whole list of questions. For future research, a connection with large business networks and interest groups would be recommended in order to obtain larger samples. This would also make it possible to divide the group of entrepreneurs in, for instance self-employed professionals versus entrepreneurs with staff, or between those entrepreneurs working with versus without business partners. These subsamples might give us more insight into the perception on constructs such as work-related strain and well-being.

Secondly, the study is executed in The Netherlands, and it is very well possible that, for example, cultural differences or different political and economic conditions influence subjective success, work-related strain and well-being in different ways. During the time working on this thesis, several efforts were made to connect with international networks in order to cooperate, but unfortunately this did not work out well in the time frame of this thesis.

Thirdly, only adding the scales of workaholism and psychological detachment in the questionnaire of 2014 lost the opportunity to compare the results with the first questionnaire in 2012. It would have been interesting to have included these constructs in both time frames.

Another limitation is the lack of taking personal resources into account. Adding for example self-efficacy, self-esteem, optimism and emotional stability (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; 2009), would have given a more elaborate picture of job demands and job resources and its links to work-related strain and work engagement. As the questionnaire in 2012 and 2014 was already very time consuming, these variables were left out. The same applies to social support as a resource, which is a pity as it could be a valuable resource for business owners (Rahim, 1996; Tetrick et al., 2000). In 2012 support from employees and support from business partners were included in the questionnaire, not realizing that there would be many self-employed completing this list. This made it impossible to take these scales into account for further studies. In 2014 a scale for the support from family and friends was included, but not in 2012, so they could not be analyzed for the longitudinal study.

Fifthly, we did not use a specific scale for job satisfaction, as we changed the Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985; Pavot & Diener, 1993; Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Diener et al., 2003) towards job satisfaction. We could have validated this scale more before using it, although reliability was high.

Finally, there is a risk of common method variance as the research draws heavily on questionnaires and scales. Although validated, widely acknowledged scales are used in this thesis, further research using various methods is recommended.

Implications for future research

In the different papers, implications for future research are mentioned for each study. In the first study on specific entrepreneurial job demands, an extension of the 'responsibility' dimension is suggested with more items besides the current three because of the low Cronbach's alpha (.67). International validation of the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale is also suggested, as mentioned before, as well as the relationship of job demands with business success, as is executed in Study 2.

In the second study, the use of both objective and subjective success indicators of business performance is recommended. This subject has already been discussed in

the previous paragraph, as one of the limitations of this thesis. The integration of social, personal and organizational resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; 2009a; 2009b) in the JD-R Model is mentioned as well, as suggestions for further research. Personal resources were recognized as important to individuals' psychological well-being in general, and to work-related well-being in particular (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007; Luthans & Youssef, 2007). The three personal resources mentioned are self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997, 2000), self-esteem (Pierce et al., 1989; Pierce & Gardner, 2004), and optimism (Scheier et al., 1994). These resources might add to the understanding of the JD-R Model for entrepreneurs. Furthermore, in-depth research on coping strategies (Drnovsek, et al, 2010) is recommended. More knowledge about coping strategies, but also about interventions such as mentoring and coaching, or techniques such as mindfulness or meditation (Fredrickson, et al., 2008; Warren Brown and Ryan, 2003; 2004), could extend not only the theoretical knowledge on work-related strain for entrepreneurs, but also the practical implications and possible effective measures to help entrepreneurs dealing with stress. This coping with stress is also mentioned by the respondents who reflected upon the results from this thesis, see 'reflections from entrepreneurs' at the end of this chapter. These business owners want to know how to prevent and deal with stress. Lastly, research into work engagement for entrepreneurs can be extended by investigating possible compensatory strategies for entrepreneurs with lower engagement levels. It is interesting to know what they can do for their enterprise to be successful.

Looking at Study 3, it was recommended to test the adapted version of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985; 2012) which we used for job satisfaction. That will increase the reliability of research into well-being. A longitudinal research is suggested as well, to measure the influence of well-being on business performance, as mentioned before. Another suggestion in the paper was to include cognitions in studying the circumplex model of emotions. Particular emotions are influenced by their own kinds of cognitions (e.g., Lerner and Keltner, 2000; Warr et al., 2014; Yik et al., 2011) and more research can add to our understanding in this area.

In Study 4, the recommendations on different objective and subjective performance measures are mentioned again, just as investigating contextual indicators such as the broader economic, political and societal environment. Besides these suggestions, we advised more measurement moments on the bi-directionality, and a time span shorter than two years.

Besides the suggestions in the different papers, a few implications for further studies can be added. Firstly, longitudinal research in different time frames is recommended on the JD-R Model in a larger and cross-cultural sample. In this thesis, a two year interval was set up, but a reciprocal relationship between well-being and business performance was not found, contrary to expectations. It would have

increased the knowledge on the bi-directionality if intervals of one year or even six months had been included to study the developments in work-related strain, well-being and business performance in more detail. Secondly, cross-cultural samples will make it possible to validate the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale internationally, possibly to extend the number of items on the ‘responsibility’ dimension of the scale, and to study work-related strain and work-related well-being in different economic and political contexts. Thirdly, including the gender perspective in future research might be another interesting route to take. For work-related strain we used three scales: ‘work-home interference’ (Geurts et al., 2005); ‘recovery after work’ (Van Veldhoven et al., 2002) and ‘detachment from work’ (Geurts et al., 2009; 2011). There is a lot of research executed on work-home interference for women entrepreneurs (e.g. Jennings & McDougald, 2007; Parasuraman et al., 1996), but less on the other dimensions of work-related strain and its effect on work-related well-being and business performance, and the role of job demands and job resources within a gender framework. A first brief analysis of the sample of this thesis did not find the gender differences on these constructs as often mentioned in literature (e.g. Brush, 1992; Brush et al., 2009; Buttner and Moore, 1997; Carree and Verheul, 2012). It would therefore be interesting to take a further look at the various dimensions. Fourthly, studying the link of personal identity with entrepreneurial job demands will be interesting to look into as entrepreneurs have the feeling that they should be available for their business 24/7. This is indicated as ‘time demands’ in the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale (Appendix D). This feeling that the enterprise is always on an entrepreneur’s mind is in line with the ‘parenthood metaphor’ (Cardon et al., 2005). This metaphor is used by Cardon et al. to express the personal connection and identification with the company. Pierce, Kostova and Dirks (2002) call the personal identity and feelings of ownership: ‘psychological ownership’. It might be interesting to investigate the relationship of personal identity or psychological ownership, with job demands and its effect on work-related strain and well-being among entrepreneurs. Lastly, investigating the (positive) psychological capital of entrepreneurs (e.g. Luthans and Youssef, 2004; Luthans et al., 2010) and the role of its dimensions (self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience) on, for example, coping with entrepreneurial job demands, the use of job resources and their effect on work-related strain among entrepreneurs is another suggestion for future research. Hmieleski and Carr (2008) assume that psychological capital may be a critical factor in business survival, which makes it interesting to continue the study in the JD-R Model and the influence on business success.

Final remarks

This thesis, with emphasis on success and well-being among entrepreneurs in The Netherlands, chooses a more psychological approach instead of an economical view.

Existing research in this field recognizes the importance of individual perceptions of entrepreneurial success and well-being (e.g. Baron & Markman, 2003; Gorgievski et al., 2010a; 2010b; 2011; Kuratko et al, 1997; Shane et al., 2003; Walker and Brown, 2004). This thesis extends the current knowledge by using multiple measures for both entrepreneurial success and well-being, and by investigating the stress and motivational process, leading to these constructs. The relationship between success and well-being is not only investigated cross-sectional but also cross-lagged with two waves.

The answers to the different research questions offer a much clearer view on the perceptions of the man or woman as 'entrepreneur', his or her challenges and the influence on success and well-being. As mentioned in the introduction, knowing more about the processes that hold back or stimulate performance is crucial for policy makers, educational institutions and business consultants, as it enables them to make the appropriate programs to help entrepreneurs perform better. With this dissertation, more information has been gathered to improve business performance and well-being. The next step is to extend this research, to share this academic knowledge in the practical field and to help entrepreneurs with everyday challenges. Entrepreneurship, easier said than done...

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Summary

ENGLISH

S

This dissertation deals with the success and well-being of entrepreneurs in The Netherlands. With the different studies included in this thesis, both constructs are further elaborated, and their relationship is investigated, both cross-sectional and longitudinal. The overarching research question is formulated as: Which factors influence success and well-being among entrepreneurs, and how are these dimensions related? The pre-study and the four studies reveal these relationships.

The theoretical starting point is the Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R Model) in which two processes are active, i.e. the stress and the motivational process. The stress process is the impact of (high) job demands on work-related strain leading to (low) organizational performance. (High) job resources, on the other hand, positively influence work engagement leading to (high) organizational performance, the motivational process. Extensive studies on job demands are being conducted for various occupations, but only to a lesser extent for entrepreneurs. In the pre-study (Appendix A) the existence of specific job demands for this occupational group is investigated. Interviews with ten business owners did prove the existence of different job demands. Those mentioned most were '(feeling of) 24/7 availability', '(feeling of) 100% commitment', 'multitude of tasks and roles', 'responsibility', 'uncertainty', and 'risk'. With these results, the first research question could be answered positively: Are there any specific entrepreneurial job demands, apart from regular job demands, for entrepreneurs?

For the job demands that were found in the pre-study, items were formulated and included in the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale. In Study 1 (Chapter 2) this scale was validated in a sample of 277 entrepreneurs in The Netherlands. The factors structure, reliability and construct validity of the scale were examined and the findings demonstrated that the scale captured three dimensions of entrepreneurial job demands: 'time demands' (5 items), 'uncertainty & risk' (6 items), and 'responsibility' (3 items). The scale showed criterion validity in explaining work-related strain (positive relationship), and well-being (negative relationship) over and above regular measures of job demands, e.g. emotional load, quantitative workload and task complexity. The conclusion is that including specific demands does seem to contribute to the explanation of work-related strain and well-being in entrepreneurs. These findings confirm the second research question of this thesis: Can distinct dimensions of specific entrepreneurial job demands be measured reliably, and do such measures show valid correlations with work-related strain and work-related well-being?

Study 2 offers insight into the stress and motivational process within the JD-R Model leading to subjective business success, both subjective personal and subjective financial success (Chapter 3). Job demands, through work-related strain (stress process), seem to have an indirect influence on both personal and financial subjective success. Work engagement is related to higher personal, but not to financial

subjective business success (motivational process). As predicted by the JD-R Model, both high job demands and low job resources predicted work-related strain. In contrast to findings of other studies, high job demands are not related to low work engagement, only having low job resources do. We assume a minimum high level of work engagement to be necessary for entrepreneurs to be successful, and in doing so, answer research question 3: How does the stress process and motivational process within the JD-R Model work for entrepreneurs in relationship to subjective personal and financial success?

In Study 3 (Chapter 4) four types of work-related affective well-being are applied to entrepreneurs and related to multiple self-reported business performance indicators. The four types are workaholism, exhaustion, work engagement and job satisfaction. Based on statistical norms in the (working) population, large numbers in the sample of Dutch entrepreneurs (N=135) score above the 75th percentile on three of the four constructs of work-related affective well-being. For the most part, entrepreneurs cannot be clearly classified as falling into one of the four affective well-being types. Studying the association with multiple performance indicators shows that working excessively, followed by high job satisfaction, most positively affects entrepreneurial success. Combined, working excessively and being engaged give the entrepreneur more turnover and profit than only working excessively or being engaged. The lowest business performance is reported by compulsively working entrepreneurs. These results imply that typical patterns or combinations of affective well-being types are commonly found in entrepreneurs, and that these appear to relate differentially to self-reported performance indicators. This answers research question 4 of this thesis: Which work-related well-being type of entrepreneur achieves the best business performance?

The first three studies are cross-sectional and Study 4 (Chapter 5) is constructed as a longitudinal study of the bi-directional relationship between entrepreneurial well-being and business performance. In a two-wave study among 121 entrepreneurs in The Netherlands, we found positive and impaired subjective well-being predicting both subjective personal success and subjective financial success two years later. The expected positive relationship between business performance at T1 and well-being at T2 was not confirmed. Thus, the bi-directionality of entrepreneurial subjective well-being and business performance was not found in the sample group, denying the last research question of this thesis: Are well-being and business performance in entrepreneurs bi-directionally related?

The pre-study and the four studies combined give more insight into the factors influencing success and well-being among entrepreneurs and their relationships and this answers the overarching research question is answered: Which factors influence success and well-being among entrepreneurs, and how are these dimensions related?

The main theoretical contributions of this thesis is the revelation of specific job demands for entrepreneurs, which should be taken into account while explaining work-related strain and well-being in entrepreneurs. Secondly, we applied the JD-R Model to entrepreneurs and found that it largely fits, although work-related strain is a stronger predictor of business success than work engagement. We provide more empirical knowledge on both strain and motivational process. Thirdly, we contribute to literature in the next study by increasing our understanding of work-related affective well-being among entrepreneurs and its relationship with business performance. We found that the circumplex model of work-related affective well-being does not seem to fit well as a typology for entrepreneurs. Finally, in the fourth study, we investigated the bi-directional relationship of well-being and business performance. Over the two year time span we did not find the expected bi-directional relationship, but we did find well-being predicting business performance. In general, this thesis increases the understanding of both positive dimensions of well-being of entrepreneurs (work engagement; life satisfaction; and job satisfaction), and impaired well-being (work-home interference, recovery after work, detachment from work). Besides, multiple measures of self-reported business performance are included in studying the relationship with well-being, cross-sectional and longitudinal.

These research findings have important consequences for entrepreneurs, policy makers, educational institutions, business consultants and mentors. The most appealing practical implications are the importance of specific entrepreneurial job demands and its influence on work-related strain and well-being among business owners. The Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale can be used as a tool for entrepreneurs, job coaches, and government institutions that want to monitor potential risk factors for strain, well-being and business success in entrepreneurs. Furthermore, we found that entrepreneurs can achieve an important competitive advantage over other entrepreneurs, if they can learn to deal effectively with job demands and with work-related strain, for instance in training and mentoring programs. On the motivational side, a basic condition for successful entrepreneurship is that entrepreneurs are high on work engagement. Maintaining this high level of work engagement is a challenge for their consultants and counselors.

Samenvatting

NEDERLANDS

S

Dit proefschrift gaat over succes en welbevinden van ondernemers in Nederland. Met de diverse studies die hierin zijn opgenomen, worden beide constructen verder uitgewerkt en wordt de relatie tussen beiden onderzocht, zowel cross-sectioneel als longitudinaal. De overkoepelende onderzoeksvraag is geformuleerd als: Wat zijn de factoren die succes en welbevinden voor ondernemers beïnvloeden, en hoe zijn deze dimensies gerelateerd? In de voorstudie en vier studies tezamen worden deze relaties onthult.

Het theoretisch vertrekpunt is het Job Demands-Resources Model (JD-R Model) waar twee processen actief zijn, het stressproces en het motivatieproces. Het stressproces is de impact van (hoge) werkvereisten op werkgerelateerde stress hetgeen leidt tot (lage) organisatieprestaties. (Hoge) hulpbronnen aan de andere kant hebben een positieve impact op werkbevlogenheid hetgeen leidt tot (hoge) organisatieprestaties, het motivatieproces. Werkvereisten zijn uitgebreid onderzocht voor diverse functies, maar veel minder voor ondernemers. In de voorstudie (Bijlage A) wordt via interviews met tien ondernemers bekeken of er specifieke werkvereisten bestaan voor deze groep. Een aantal verschillende werkvereisten wordt inderdaad gevonden. Het meest genoemd, zijn '(gevoel van) 24/7 beschikbaarheid', '(gevoel van) 100% commitment', 'veelheid van taken en rollen', 'verantwoordelijkheid', 'onzekerheid' en 'risico'. Met deze resultaten kon de eerste onderzoeksvraag positief worden beantwoord: Zijn er specifieke werkvereisten voor ondernemers naast reguliere werkvereisten?

Voor de werkvereisten uit de voorstudie zijn items geformuleerd en opgenomen in de Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale. In de eerste studie (Hoofdstuk 2) wordt deze schaal gevalideerd in een onderzoeksgroep van 277 ondernemers in Nederland. De factorstructuur, betrouwbaarheid en constructvaliditeit van de schaal is onderzocht en de uitkomsten laten zien dat de schaal drie dimensies van werkvereisten voor ondernemers kent: 'tijd vereisten' (5 items), 'onzekerheid en risico' (6 items), en 'verantwoordelijkheid' (3 items). De schaal liet criteriumvaliditeit zien bij het verklaren van werkgerelateerde stress (positieve relatie), en welbevinden (negatieve relatie) boven reguliere schalen van werkvereisten, zoals emotionele belasting, kwantitatieve werkbelasting en taakcomplexiteit. De conclusie is dat het opnemen van specifieke werkvereisten een aanvulling lijkt te zijn op de verklaring voor werkgerelateerde stress en welbevinden bij ondernemers. Deze resultaten geven een positief antwoord op de tweede onderzoeksvraag uit dit proefschrift: Kunnen onderscheidende dimensies van specifieke werkvereisten voor ondernemers betrouwbaar worden gemeten, en laten deze metingen valide correlaties zien met werkgerelateerde stress en werkgerelateerd welbevinden?

Studie 2 geeft inzicht in het stress- en motivatieproces binnen het JD-R Model dat leidt tot subjectief bedrijfssucces, zowel subjectief persoonlijk als subjectief financieel succes (Hoofdstuk 3). Werkvereisten lijken een indirecte invloed te hebben op zowel

gepercipieerd persoonlijk als financieel ondernemerssucces, via werkgerelateerde stress (stressproces). Het motivatieproces laat zien dat bevlogenheid gerelateerd is aan hoger gepercipieerd persoonlijk succes, maar niet aan gepercipieerd financieel succes. Zoals voorspeld in het JD-R Model, voorspelden zowel hoge werkvereisten als lage hulpbronnen werkgerelateerde stress. In tegenstelling tot resultaten uit andere studies, zijn hoge werkvereisten niet gerelateerd aan lage werkbevlogenheid, alleen weinig hulpbronnen lieten een connectie met werkbevlogenheid zien. Wij veronderstellen dat een minimaal hoog niveau van bevlogenheid een noodzakelijke voorwaarde is voor ondernemers om succesvol te kunnen zijn. We beantwoorden hiermee onderzoeksvraag 3: Hoe werkt het stress- en motivatieproces binnen het JD-R Model voor ondernemers en in de relatie met subjectief persoonlijk en financieel succes?

In de derde studie (Hoofdstuk 4) worden vier typen van werkgerelateerd affectief welbevinden toegepast op ondernemers en gerelateerd aan meerdere zelf gerapporteerde indicatoren van bedrijfsprestaties. De vier types zijn werkverslaving, uitputting, werkbevlogenheid, en werktevredenheid. Grote aantallen in de groep van Nederlandse ondernemers (N=135) scoren boven de 75^e percentiel op drie van de vier constructen van werkgerelateerd affectief welbevinden, gebaseerd op statistische normen van werknemers. Ondernemers kunnen in de meeste gevallen dus niet worden ingedeeld in een van de vier types van affectief welbevinden. Het bestuderen van de associatie met meerdere prestatieindicatoren laat zien dat excessief werken gevolgd door werktevredenheid, ondernemerssucces het meest positief beïnvloedt. Indien gecombineerd, excessief werken in combinatie met bevlogenheid, geeft de ondernemer meer omzet en winst dan dat de ondernemer alleen excessief zou werken of bevlogen zou zijn. De laagste bedrijfsprestaties wordt gerapporteerd door compulsief werkende ondernemers. Deze resultaten impliceren dat typische patronen of combinaties van affectief welbevinden worden gevonden bij ondernemers, en dat deze op een verschillende manier invloed hebben op zelf gerapporteerde prestatieindicatoren. We beantwoorden hiermee onderzoeksvraag 4 van dit proefschrift: Welk type ondernemer van werkgerelateerd welbevinden bereikt het beste bedrijfsresultaat?

De eerste drie studies zijn cross-sectioneel en daarom is de vierde studie (Hoofdstuk 5) als een longitudinale studie opgebouwd met het doel om de bi-directionele relatie tussen welbevinden en bedrijfsresultaat bij ondernemers te onderzoeken. In een twee-fasen studie onder 121 ondernemers in Nederland werd gevonden dat positief en negatief subjectief welbevinden zowel gepercipieerd persoonlijk als gepercipieerd financieel succes twee jaar later voorspellen. De verwachte positieve relatie tussen bedrijfssucces op T1 en welbevinden op T2 werd niet gevonden. Dus er is geen sprake van een bi-directionele relatie tussen subjectief welbevinden en ondernemerssucces in deze groep van respondenten waardoor we de

laatste onderzoeksvraag moeten ontkennen: Zijn welbevinden en bedrijfsprestaties bi-directioneel gerelateerd bij ondernemers?

De voorstudie en de vier studies tezamen geven meer inzicht in de factoren die succes en welbevinden van ondernemers beïnvloeden en hun onderlinge relaties. Hiermee geven we antwoord op de overkoepelende onderzoeksvraag: Wat zijn de factoren die succes en welbevinden voor ondernemers beïnvloeden, en hoe zijn deze dimensies gerelateerd?

De belangrijkste theoretische bijdragen van dit proefschrift zijn dat specifieke werkvereisten voor ondernemers aan het licht zijn gebracht die meegenomen dienen te worden bij het verklaren van werkgerelateerde stress en welbevinden van ondernemers. Ten tweede, het JD-R Model is voor een groot deel van toepassing op ondernemers, hoewel werkgerelateerde stress een sterkere voorspeller van bedrijfssucces is dan bevlogenheid. In deze studie is meer empirische kennis vergaard over zowel het stress- als motivatieproces. Ten derde, we voegen kennis toe met de studie over werkgerelateerd welbevinden bij ondernemers en de relatie met bedrijfssucces. We vonden dat het 'circumplex model' van werkgerelateerd affectief welbevinden niet goed lijkt te passen als een typologie voor ondernemers. Ten slotte, in de vierde studie onderzochten we de bi-directionele relatie tussen welbevinden en bedrijfsprestaties. Over een periode van twee jaar vonden we niet de verwachte wederkerige relatie tussen welbevinden en bedrijfsprestaties, maar we vonden wel dat welbevinden succes voorspelt. In het algemeen draagt dit proefschrift bij aan de kennis van positieve dimensies van welbevinden (werkbeflogenheid, tevredenheid over het leven, werktevredenheid), en negatief welbevinden (werk-thuis interferentie, herstel na werk, onthechting van werk). Daarnaast zijn meerdere indicatoren van zelf gerapporteerde bedrijfsprestaties zijn opgenomen bij het bestuderen van de relatie met welbevinden, zowel cross-sectioneel als longitudinaal.

Deze onderzoeksresultaten hebben belangrijke consequenties voor ondernemers, beleidsmedewerkers, onderwijsinstellingen, bedrijfsadviseurs en mentoren. De meest uitnodigende praktische implicaties zijn het belang van specifieke werkvereisten en de invloed daarvan op werkgerelateerde stress en welbevinden bij ondernemers. De Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale kan worden ingezet als middel om potentiële stressfactoren naar boven te krijgen bij ondernemers. Bovendien vonden we dat ondernemers een concurrentievoordeel kunnen behalen ten aanzien van andere ondernemers als ze kunnen leren hoe ze effectief kunnen omgaan met werkvereisten en werkgerelateerde stress. Training- en coachingprogramma's kunnen dit fenomeen oppakken. Aan de kant van de motivatie dienen ondernemers erg bevlogen te zijn als basisvoorwaarde voor succesvol ondernemerschap. Daar is een uitdaging voor adviseurs en mentoren hoe dit hoge bevlogenheidsniveau kan worden vastgehouden.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A

As a self-employed entrepreneur for around ten years I need to develop myself constantly to be interesting for my clients and network partners, not for today but for the future. The world around us changes at such a fast rate that I have to move forward quickly. A PhD program gave me the opportunity to not only develop my cognitive abilities, but also to create a 'unique selling proposition' in comparison with other entrepreneur(ship) consultants. In the almost five years of working on this dissertation I ran my own entrepreneurship consultancy, but I also wrote a few books, I started my international social enterprise ENPower (entrepreneurship for marginalized women worldwide), I was invited as speaker and moderator at very interesting conferences in The Netherlands and abroad, journalists from television, radio and many magazines interviewed me, and I was appointed as Women's Representative in The Netherlands Delegation to the United Nations General Assembly in 2013. Looking back so many things happened in only a few years time...

The PhD was an interesting project which brought me new insights and new relationships in a different environment: the academic world. I was surprised to learn about the large gap between the academic field and entrepreneurs. They do not understand each other very well and I try to close the gap in my own way. The papers in this thesis are less theoretical, but more practical as I advocate strongly more valorisation in the field of entrepreneurship. Hopefully this thesis will make a contribution in this area.

Many people have supported me in this process since the start in 2010. I like to take this opportunity to thank all the people involved. First, thanks to all the great entrepreneurs who took the time to participate in the research. Without your time and effort this thesis would not be there.

In the academic world my sincere gratitude to professor dr. Geert Duijsters who asked me in 2009 during a conversation: "Why don't you start a PhD program?" That question made me think about starting this intensive program and I never regretted the decision to take the step. Furthermore, I want to thank professor dr. Marc van Veldhoven and professor dr. René Schalk, not only for their substantive support, but also the trust they gave me in their role as promotor. As an entrepreneur it was not always easy to find my way in the scientific world on this specific research topic. I never had a dull moment and I always felt your support. Dr. Marjan Gorgievski assisted me wherever she could and executed analyses for two papers. Besides she accepted the offer to be my co-promotor. Thank you Marc, René and Marjan, I am truly grateful for your feedback, inspiration and support.

Furthermore I thank my committee members, professor dr Geert Duijsters, professor dr Arjan van den Born, professor dr Wim Naudé, and dr. Mariola Laguna, for agreeing to serve on my committee, and for their evaluations and feedback. Jeroen Berkhout (Berkhout Photography), Joris Bosman (Desque), Priya Gayadien (Van

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The photographs in this thesis are made by Jeroen Berkhout. He is an Eindhoven based photographer specialized in portraits and photographic documentaries. Two Dutch entrepreneurs are modelling for the pictures: Lotje and David. Lotje is a certified nutritionist and is known because of her 'vitamobile'. In this concept fresh, 100% natural, vitamin shakes are made and healthy food advice is given. Next to her busy life as an entrepreneur she is a dedicated wife and mother of two children with a passion for food, sports and experiencing the 'good life'. Thé creative network partner in the south of The Netherlands, is David. He initiated a business platform, an entrepreneurial talkshow, and pitch events. In his work it is about being inspired by connections between entrepreneurs. Next to his business network, David is a caring husband and father of Flo. His passion is (book)design, travelling, music, sports and (content)media.

Thanks to Lotje and David for being the models for the photos, and thanks to Jeroen for the great photography and layout for this thesis, but more importantly thanks for your constant moral support and confidence you gave me over all these years.

My warm thanks to Melanie Hopewell and Kitty Hamersma who spent their precious time on improving my English grammar. I may not forget my secondants Janet Lebon and Ilona de Ruiter. I am very pleased you will stand behind me on this important day of my life. Thanks for all your support and above all, thanks for the good laugh and inspiring conversations we have so many times.

Thank you mother, my brothers Harrie, Wil, Dirk, Maart and Jo, and my 'sisters' Marina, Heiltje, Rita, and Rien, for always showing me the 'Dijkhuizen family touch', the family in which I belong and of which I am proud...

Thank you and looking forward seeing you again soon in the inspiring world of entrepreneurship.

Josette Dijkhuizen

BIOGRAPHY

B



Josette Dijkhuizen, born on 18 August 1969, holds a degree in Marketing (H.E.AO. Den Bosch and NIMA-C), in Management & Organization Sciences (with distinction) and she also has a certificate in coaching. Josette worked for ten years at different international small and medium enterprises in sales and marketing jobs. In 2005 she quitted her job to start her own company. Ever since she works as a entrepreneurship consultant and mentor for entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial organizations.

Her passion for entrepreneurship combined with her experience and knowledge is expressed in this thesis but also in a number of books: 'Startershandboek' (a practical handbook for start-ups), 'Startershandboek voor Inburgeraars' (a handbook for naturalized citizens who want to start a company), 'Een andere kijk op trainen en coachen' (a different view on training and coaching), 'Het ondernemersgen' (the entrepreneurial gene), and 'Vallen, opstaan en weer doorgaan' (fall, rise and proceed). She is especially interested in the entrepreneur as a person and less in entrepreneurship as a phenomenon in the macro environment. This interest led to the overall theme of this thesis: success and happiness among entrepreneurs in The Netherlands. She advocates more understanding between science and practice on the theme of entrepreneurship. This is shown in her books, but also in her consultancy work, in her presentations and in her workshops. About different aspects of entrepreneurship Josette gives presentations and lectures for financial institutes, Chambers of Commerce, universities, councils and business networks. She is not only a well-known speaker in The Netherlands but she is also invited for lectures on international conferences.

Josette was appointed as Women's Representative in the Netherlands Delegation to the United Nations General Assembly 2013. On 14 October she spoke at the General Assembly in New York about women's entrepreneurship. One of her social enterprises is called 'ENPower' and is based on assisting women from shelters to start-up their company. She received a national award for this project (Joke Smit Aanmoedigingsprijs), but also the Eindhoven City Friendship Award, the Silver Tulip, she was appointed to one of the 100 most influential people of The Netherlands, and she received different nominations for her books and entrepreneurial work.

Josette Dijkhuizen
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B

EPILOGUE

E

The PhD program gave me the opportunity to look into scientific research and ‘make’ new knowledge in the main area of my interest: entrepreneurship. I already spread this knowledge through my consultancy work, but also through my books, blogs, columns, presentations and workshops. My intention in all four studies was to examine topics that are worthwhile for entrepreneurs, not in the first place for academics. In my opinion too much research has been done which never gets to the desk of the business owner. So, practice what you preach.... I had to stick to my ideas. Therefore, I think that the papers have a more practical approach. By doing this I hope to inspire and challenge both academics and entrepreneurs.

My research ‘career’ is not finished after this thesis. In one way or the other I will stay in touch with the academic field. Not only because I like studying psychology of entrepreneurship as a field of personal and business interest, but also because of my social enterprise ENPower: entrepreneurship for marginalized men and women. With the entrepreneurship program of ENPower I assist vulnerable men and women – from shelter homes, refugees, women from human trafficking, teen mums, prisoners – to realize their dreams of starting their own business. I run this program in The Netherlands and by the time of writing this text, I took the first steps in starting up in Pakistan, Macedonia, Barbados, and Zambia. Because there is no funding available yet, I need to convince government bodies, universities, business networks, and others, to participate. In this process evidence based research helps to tie up with them and as a PhD I will have more legitimacy in convincing people to give these men and women the opportunity to realize their dreams. Personally, I am very interested in international social entrepreneurship as I see across the globe many women entrepreneurs being engaged in so many social activities next to running their business. We can definitely learn a lot from them on this side of the globe.

With regard to my experience as being an external PhD I think it is important to help them in their process. It might be an idea to form a group of external PhD’s so they can assist each other on practical issues, on research and statistical programs and on mental support and sparring. I got my master degree in 1994 and did not work with SPSS until I started my PhD program. Sharing experiences and knowledge among other external PhD’s would have been helpful in my process. Not only in a ‘Tilburg PhD group’, but also on academic conferences where I could have presented my research and relate to other researchers. It is my challenge now to spread my knowledge via for example columns, blogs, presentations, and connect the scientific data to the practical field of entrepreneurship...

REFLECTIONS FROM ENTREPRENEURS

R

Jeroen Berkhout (male, 45 years, interim communications consultant)

The difference of being an employee or an entrepreneur is mainly in coping with financial uncertainty. As an entrepreneur I have to take care of my own safety net as I cannot apply for an unemployment grant from the government. If I am not doing my job properly I endanger my financial stability. I also feel more responsibility than in a regular job. I can only blame myself if things are not running smoothly. However, I do not recognize the time demands as I am working as an interim consultant and dealing with only one client.

I experienced strain especially at the start of my enterprise because I was insecure about whether I would be able to earn enough money with my business. After being an entrepreneur for five years now the experienced work-related stress is less, but not gone. Looking at my bank account I sometimes feel a sense of urgency which causes stress. Through personal development and building self-confidence as an entrepreneur I feel less stressed. To reduce stress I take action and do things. It is about the feeling that you are not waiting, but actually taking steps, such as networking and acquisition, to get the new projects. I also use feedback from people I respect who can be friends or colleagues.

I chose to follow my passion, which is photography, next to my work as communications consultant. If I am successful as a photographer - which means being appreciated, not earning a lot of money – I am very happy. I started as an entrepreneur because of the independence and earning money. Autonomy shows to be very subjective as I now feel governed by clients which decreases my feeling of freedom. The passion I feel for photography is not because of earning money but to follow my dreams. If I am happy and feeling good everything goes easier. The sense of urgency is causing less pressure if you feel happy with the things you are doing. Furthermore, if you feel passionate about your work you radiate this to others. It will be easier to get in touch with people and they will grant you business. This is specifically true for entrepreneurs. I never met any employees who could radiate their work passion as business owners can. So if you can show your passion to others the success is coming towards you as the potential customer want to work with you and not someone else. This passion is connection in my opinion to work engagement, especially when you start as an entrepreneur. You need to be passionate and engaged to take off with your business idea and DO something. After a while you need the stress to keep pushing towards your success. Stress is a necessary thing to finally become successful, to KEEP DOING the things.

For me it is about the two motives in life: love and fear. Love is engagement, and fear is stress. Fear is a much stronger feeling and it is important to know how to handle this.

I recognize that working excessively is associated with high turnover and profit. If you do a hundred things there is a bigger chance of being successful in 10 than if you only take up 20 action points. So you have to take action as an entrepreneur. This also makes you visible which is important as there are many others offering the same type of service.

Through this thesis there is more insight into job demands and work-related strain. The next question for me as an entrepreneur is: how can I handle the job demands and stress or how can I avoid them? In my opinion, if you cannot handle stress it is going towards apathy and doing nothing in the end. So a healthy dose of stress is good for being sharp and alert. So, maybe one can find a tool to monitor stress levels of entrepreneurs.

Hedwig Passier (female, 45 years, personal coach)

I strongly recognize the three dimensions of specific entrepreneurial job demands. Uncertainty is less prominent if you are entrepreneur over a longer period of time. I notice that I am less uncertain and less worried about a lack of income than I was years ago. I can now see the revolving structure of slow times being followed by more busy periods. Also the returning clients contribute to a higher self-confidence and lower level of feeling uncertain. I am still worried though that the customer won't come back if I say 'no' to a request, so it is hard for me to do so. This results in high workload and I experience stress some times. I notice this in concentration, in fatigue, and I become more sensitive for the flu. If I have the feeling I cannot have a day off, I reached the limit. I recognize indeed the excessively working but not the compulsively working as I chose for the projects and tasks myself. I do not have the feeling that something is laid upon me from outside.

For me there are not many resources as a counterbalance for high demands. I am my company, so it is difficult to outsource activities. If I am going away for a day, the work is not been done. However, I have social support from friends who are entrepreneurs themselves and understand my situation. Besides, I love to walk in the forest with my dog to be away from the office and get energized. Other things I arrange are a good accountant, and domestic help. Governments or other third parties cannot give me any more resources.

Working long hours and being financially successful does not make me happy. But a good cash flow gives me means to follow specific courses and develop myself personally, and that makes me happy. In my work I am happy if my clients reach their goals which means I did a good job.

By participating in this research I was enforced to reflect upon myself and you need that as an entrepreneur once in a while. Working as an employee gives you for example bilaterals which you don't have as a business owner. So, by filling in the

questionnaire I looked in my own mirror and that raised my awareness. From this research I like to know more about entrepreneurial stress. How does it exist and how can I handle it?

Caspar de Haan (male, 37 years, real estate maintenance)

I very much recognize the three specific entrepreneurial job demands. I am thinking about the future of my company 24/7. I don't have to, but I want to. I read a lot about market developments, legislation, and such, to understand what is going on around us and develop the course of the company. Working on and in your company 24/7 is not a negative aspect of being an entrepreneur. It's just the way I work. However, I identify myself with my company and it will be better to get more distance. I am working on this by getting the best people around me. If I can develop people, they will flourish and I can guide wherever is needed. But my challenge still is to let go some times and get more balance in my energy level. Meditation techniques are probably giving me that better balance. Furthermore, I organize feedback within the company as the CEO is my sparring partner, and outside the company with consultants, my girl friend and father.

I experience stress, especially nowadays with all the volatilities, with for mainly the government. On the other hand I have an extremely high level of work engagement. My engagement never stops and it is very much needed in the company. We have to act and I am the driving force. I recognize the relationship between work engagement and my feeling of success. If I am more engaged I feel more successful. I do not recognize the other way around. If I feel successful I think 'oh great', but let's move on...

Looking at the four types of work-related well-being I recognize the high levels in myself. I am especially engaged, more than being satisfied, I am indeed a workaholic and often stressed. Being a workaholic I am excessively working, not compulsively. Compared with our competitors we are more profitable and I work the most excessively.

Suggestions for future research are for example studying the personal profile of the 'second (wo)man', the best team profile and ownership of a management team.

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

Published papers (English)

Dijkhuizen, J., Van Veldhoven, M., & Schalk, R. (2014). Development and validation of the Entrepreneurial Job Demands Scale. *International Journal of Knowledge, Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, 2, 70-89.

Dijkhuizen, J., Gorgievski, M., Van Veldhoven, M., & Schalk, R. (in press). Feeling successful as an entrepreneur: A demands-resources approach. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, DOI: 10.1007/s11365-014-0354-z

Papers under review (English)

Dijkhuizen, J., Van Veldhoven, M., & Schalk, R. Four types of well-being among entrepreneurs and their relationships with business performance.

Dijkhuizen, J., Gorgievski, M., Van Veldhoven, M., & Schalk, R. What comes first, well-being or performance? A two-wave study on entrepreneurial subjective well-being and business performance.

Published articles (Dutch)

Dijkhuizen, J. (2012). Ondernemers willen meer dan alleen geld verdienen. In: Department of Human Resource Studies, Een veelzijdig perspectief: vijftientig jaar Human Resource Studies Tilburg University, pp. 44-47.

Dijkhuizen, J. (2014). Ik denk dat ik het gewoon goed heb gedaan. In: Soekhradj, A. (Ed), *Topvrouwen: vrouwen die inspireren*, eBookPoint, pp. 4053.

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Dijkhuizen, J., & Kusters, T. (2008). Een andere kijk op trainen en coachen, Comitari.

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APPENDIX A

QUALITATIVE PRE-STUDY

A/A

Introduction

In this appendix the qualitative pre-study is described which aims at finding an answer to the first research question: Are there specific entrepreneurial job demands, apart from regular job demands, for entrepreneurs? To be able to find the right answer, interviews are taken with ten entrepreneurs. The goal of these conversations was to find out which demands they experience in their entrepreneurial work, and what resources they use in executing their activities. The results are described in the next paragraphs.

In literature a multitude of job demands is analyzed, such as work pressure, physical demands, personal conflicts, and problems with reorganization (e.g. Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bakker et al., 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In addition there are studies on specific job demands for different occupations, such as 'disruptive pupil behaviors' for teachers (Hakanen et al., 2006), and specific emotional demands with regard to death, illness, and aggressive patients for nurses (Van der Heijden et al., 2008). Entrepreneurs are different from employees as they run a private business and carry the full responsibility of success and failure. Running a business with all the risk taking and ambiguity involved, is therefore stressful (e.g. Boyd & Begley, 1987; Boyd & Gumpert, 1983; Buttner, 1992). Employees are salaried workers who do not carry full responsibility (own risk and account) for an organization or enterprise. The assumption therefore is that there might be specific job demands for entrepreneurs. On the other hand entrepreneurs work autonomously (e.g. Benz & Frey, 2008; Prottas & Thompson, 2006) and it is therefore likely they use different job resources to reduce the job demands (e.g. Eden, 1975). It is worthwhile to investigate whether there are specific, relevant job demands for entrepreneurs, as if these are found, they might influence the stress and motivational process and finally business performance of the entrepreneur. The contribution to literature is to extend current knowledge on job demands for entrepreneurs. For the practical point of view knowing whether there are specific entrepreneurial job demands would provide focus points for entrepreneurs, business consultants and coaches in monitoring potential risk factors for work-related strain and well-being according to the JD-R Model.

Exploratory investigation**Sample**

In April and May 2011 ten interviews were held with Dutch entrepreneurs to find out whether there are job demands and job resources which differentiate entrepreneurs from employees. The ten participants were recruited from the existing network of entrepreneurs of the interviewer (Josette Dijkhuizen MSc) by purposive sampling. They were selected to be different in size, age, line of business, and in working alone or with a business partner, see Table 1.

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Table 1 Respondents qualitative pre-study

Respondent	Male/Female	Age person	Age company	Sector	Employees yes/no	Business partner yes/no
1	M	56+	>10	Ict/communications	Yes	Yes
2	F	40-43	6-10	Service	No	No
3	F	<=39	>10	Financial service	Yes	Yes
4	M	40-43	<3	Service	No	No
5	M	50-55	<3	Service	No	No
6	M	44-49	>10	Industry	Yes	No
7	M	40-43	>10	Wholesale	Yes	Yes
8	M	40-43	6-10	Service	Yes	Yes
9	F	44-49	3-5	Service	No	No
10	F	44-49	<3	Service	No	No

Method of analysis

The respondents all had experience in working in a salaried job before they started their own company, so they could compare having a job with running your own business. The entrepreneurs were all contacted by the interviewer by phone to ask for their participation. All ten approached entrepreneurs agreed for the interview. After the appointment was made, the 45 to 60 minute interviews were held by the interviewer at the workplace of the entrepreneur, and only the interviewer and entrepreneur were present. These conversations were held between April and May 2011. The following open questions were asked:

(A) "What requires entrepreneurship from you which is different from an employed job?" (translated from Dutch: "Wat vergt het ondernemerschap van u wat anders is dan het werken in loondienst?")

(B) "Which resources do you use in entrepreneurship?" (translated from Dutch: "Welke hulpbronnen ofwel middelen zet u in bij het ondernemerschap?")

After the first five interviews it became clear that the participants mentioned the same job demands and job resources. Therefore, for the next five interviews a third question was added:

(C) "Which resources do you use to reduce the demands mentioned?" (translated from Dutch: "Met welke middelen vermindert u de genoemde vereisten?")

Field notes were made, using pen and paper, during the interviews. A total of 60 answers were given by the ten entrepreneurs to question a, and 74 answers to questions b and c together. The answers were categorized by hand by the interviewer into job demands and job resources. Leaving out the tablings and combining some remarks to job demand or job resource with an own consistent content without overlap, led to a list of nine job demands and eight job resources. An example is one entrepreneur mentioning both “you have to commit 100%” and “you have to do everything”. This is taken together as job demand ‘(feeling) of 100% commitment’. This gave clarity of the job demands and job resources and made more interviews redundant. The different factors mentioned by the respondents are further discussed in the next paragraphs.

Results

Entrepreneurial job demands

In the interviews with the ten entrepreneurs a total of nine job demands could be identified which were mentioned more than once and will be briefly discussed below.

1. (Feeling of) 24/7 availability

The enterprise is always on the mind of the entrepreneur and he or she has the feeling that he or she should always and everywhere be available for the business. In fact it seems they identify themselves with their company. This aspect of 24/7 availability was mentioned by a majority of the respondents.

2. (Feeling of) 100% commitment

Respondents feel one hundred percent commitment towards the company, employees if any, and oneself. They feel they can only be an entrepreneur if they are fully committed, and they want to put all the effort into their enterprise.

3. Work overload

Running a business is asking more working hours from the respondents than working in a salaried job, and they feel a heavy workload. The consequence of this quantitative workload is that the balance of work versus private life is geared towards work rather than personal time.

4. Multitude of tasks and roles

According to the respondents, entrepreneurship means that they need to execute many tasks and roles outside their main field of expertise, such as networking, finance, acquisition, and innovation. For some entrepreneurs these are fun activities to do, while others want to focus on their specific expertise

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and think of this additional work as irritating and annoying.

5. Broader and larger responsibility

Some entrepreneurs experienced larger and broader responsibility towards oneself, employees, business partners, and customers. Others also experienced high responsibility in the paid job they had before. However, the fact that the enterprise is 'theirs' means for them final responsibility for the business performance.

6. Uncertainty

Respondents mentioned uncertainty on two different issues. Firstly, uncertainty about current and future income, and financial position. Secondly, respondents mentioned uncertainty about personal performance as they do not get job assessments or peer reviews because of the working environment. In general it is about the question: "am I doing the right things, and am I doing the things right?"

7. Risk

Entrepreneurs see risk-taking as thinking and acting 'outside the box' and venturing without knowing the outcome. Respondents perceived more risk than working in an employed job.

8. Discipline and self-management

Respondents mention that the business requires discipline and self-management as no one is telling the entrepreneur what to do. So, entrepreneurship demands from them a lot of discipline and self-management.

9. Vision, market orientatation and vigilance

As an entrepreneur one needs a vision and market orientation and the translation thereof towards products and services. Just like the previous job demand, this factor is hardly mentioned by the entrepreneurs in the pre-study.

Entrepreneurial job resources

Job resources are important as a counter weight to deal with the job demands, but are also important in their own right. The ten respondents mentioned in the interviews the following eight resources which are further elaborated below:

1. Social support

The entrepreneurs mention different support mechanisms, namely support from 1) life partner and family; 2) business partner(s); 3) other entrepreneurs; 4) employees (if any); and to a far lesser extent 5) consultants. Support from financial or governmental institutions were not mentioned.

2. Feedback

Feedback used as a job resource comes from business partner(s), other entrepreneurs, customers and sometimes consultants. The feedback about doing things right, and doing the right things. Working in a company there is plenty of feedback available through for example meetings, and job assessments. The entrepreneur needs to organize this himself or herself.

3. Autonomy

For the respondents autonomy enhances both participation in decision making, and the freedom of choices, as well as having a flexible work schedule. The flexible work schedule is needed to avoid conflicts between work and private life.

4. Outsourcing and/or task-delegation

Entrepreneurs mention outsourcing or delegation of tasks. This means that they delegate to employees, if any, or outsource activities to partners, such as administrative activities or tasks in the field of marketing and communications.

5. Planning and organization of work

Entrepreneurs need to organize their own work, nobody else is doing this for them. Being good at planning and having efficient organization of all activities that need to be done, entrepreneurs see this as a valuable job resource to deal with the heavy workload.

6. Extension of knowledge

The world is constantly changing and the entrepreneur must be vigilant for the environmental opportunities and external threats. Therefore the business owner should extend his or her knowledge about market trends, new products and technology, changing manufacturing methods, and competitors' strategies.

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7. Self-confidence

For some entrepreneurs turnover is the criteria for assessing performance and if turnover is good they are confident about their work. For others the trust and confidence in oneself is necessary to be able to cope with uncertainty. A certain level of self-confidence is needed as the entrepreneur often works alone and can only rely on himself or herself.

8. Intuition

Intuition is used to be able to make the right decisions about so many things entrepreneurs encounter.

Match of entrepreneurial job demands and job resources

Job demands and job resources are important in their own right, but in this paragraph they are matched with each other as entrepreneurs indicated in the interviews that job resources are necessary in dealing with job demands. This is in line with the role of job demands and job resources in the JD-R Model (Chapter 1). From the interviews it is for example clear that entrepreneurs experience a '(feeling) of 24/7 availability' as a job demand. To be able to cope with this demand they use different job resources, such as 'autonomy', 'support from a business partner(s), employees' and 'task delegation'. The overview of different resources that are deployed for every job demand according to the respondents, is captured in Table 2.

Table 2 Match of entrepreneurial job demands with job resources according to ten entrepreneurs

Entrepreneurial job demands	Entrepreneurial job resources
(feeling of) 24/7 availability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autonomy: flexible work schedule • Support business partners, employees • Task-delegation
(feeling of) 100% commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support people around you
Work-life imbalance (quantitative overload)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autonomy: freedom to make choices, participation in decision making • Autonomy: flexible work schedule • Support life partner and family • Planning and organisation • Task-delegation
Multitude of tasks and roles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outsourcing and/or task delegation • Support business partner(s), employees, consultants, other entrepreneurs
Broader and larger responsibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support from business partner(s), employees • Autonomy: freedom to make choices, participation in decision making • Task-delegation • Feedback of employees, customers, et cetera
Uncertainty: About current and future income/financial position	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feedback of customers and other entrepreneurs • Extension of knowledge (about future developments) • Self-confidence
Uncertainty: About own performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feedback on performance • Self-confidence
Risk	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autonomy: freedom to make choice, participation in decision making • Support business partner(s) • Self-confidence • Intuition
Discipline and self-management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Planning and organisation • Support partner, family and other entrepreneurs
Vision, market orientation and vigilance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feedback • Extension of knowledge

Discussion

Nine different job demands were noted from the interviews with the ten entrepreneurs. The first often mentioned job demand is the '(feeling of) 24/7 availability'. This feeling of identification and perception of oneness with the company is in line with the concept of 'organizational identification' (Edwards, 2005; Van Knippenberg et al., 2007; Mael & Ashforth, 1992), and the 'parenthood metaphor' (Cardon et al., 2005). This metaphor is used by Cardon and colleagues to express the personal connection and identification with the company. Secondly, the '(feeling of) 100% commitment', which shows some overlap with the previous factor in the congruence of individual and organizational goals and values, and the feeling of belonging and attachment (e.g. Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Edwards, 2005). In general it can be said that identification is much more organization-specific than commitment (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Thirdly, heavy work load is mentioned as an entrepreneurial job demand, in line with empirical studies showing the effects of a high work load as a consequence of owning a business and predictor of stress among entrepreneurs (e.g. Boyd & Begley, 1987; Wincent & Örtqvist, 2009). This variable is also found among employees (e.g. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker et al., 2010), but studies confirm the higher levels of stress because of the work overload of entrepreneurs compared to employees (Boyd & Gumpert, 1983; Chay, 1993; Gorgievski & Laguna, 2008; Rau et al., 2008; Harris et al., 1999; Tetrick, et al., 2000). In addition, the research of Buttner (1992) shows that stress is not linked to the volume of work, but with the weightiness of the decisions that must be taken and whether the entrepreneur is making the right decision. The fourth factor mentioned is the multitude of tasks and roles. Executing many different roles with simultaneous demands can lead to role overload (Buttner, 1992). Fifthly, broader and larger responsibility is mentioned by the respondents. This is contrary to the study of Boyd & Begley (1987) who did not find a difference between founders and CEOs on 'responsibility for people'. The sixth dimension mentioned is uncertainty. There is literature available on the construct of ambiguity related to entrepreneurship (e.g. Begley & Boyd, 1987; Furnham & Ribchester, 1995; Sexton & Bowman, 1985; Timmons & Spinelli, 2007). Ambiguity comes from novel and complex situations (Budner, 1962) which entrepreneurs often encounter. Related to uncertainty is the seventh dimension, risk. Entrepreneurs need to take risk without knowing the probability of success (e.g., Brockhaus, 1980; Kahneman & Lovallo, 1993; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Norton & Moore, 2006). It is assumed that entrepreneurs have a moderate risk-taking propensity and that they take (calculated) risks (e.g., Baum, Frese & Baron, 2007; Chen, Greene, & Crick, 1998; McClelland, 1961,1965). However, entrepreneurs seem to perceive existing risks as smaller than they are, and smaller in magnitude than other persons do (Baron, Frese, & Baum in: Baum, Frese, & Baron, 2007). The eighth dimension of job demands is discipline and self-management which relates to

self-efficacy (e.g. Baum & Locke, 2004; Rauch & Frese, 2007). The last job demand mentioned is grouped as vision, market orientation and vigilance. Baum & Locke (2004) were the first to study which communicated vision was related to performance of entrepreneurship.

The entrepreneurial job demands mentioned above are all emotional demands. Physical demands were not mentioned by the ten entrepreneurs interviewed in the pre-study. This is in line with the study of Stephan & Roesler (2010) in which was revealed that entrepreneurs showed lower overall physical problems, but contradictory to other studies showing physical problems among entrepreneurs (Parslow et al. 2004; Boyd & Gumpert, 1983). For Study 1 items were formulated for the job demands mentioned most, namely '(feeling of) 24/7 availability', '(feeling of) 100% commitment', 'multitude of tasks and roles', 'responsibility', 'uncertainty' and 'risk'. For 'work load' existing scales were used in Study 1. The last two dimensions 'discipline and self-management' and 'vision, market orientation and vigilance' were hardly mentioned in the interviews, and not included in the list of items. This final list of items was included in the questionnaire on which Study 1 (Chapter 2) was built (see Appendix B).

With regard to the job resources the dimensions mentioned in the ten interviews can be recognized from previous empirical studies. Firstly, social support is often mentioned as a job resource (e.g. Bakker et al., 2008; Taris and Schreurs, 2009). Compared to managers, entrepreneurs seem to have a low need for support (Rahim, 1996; Sexton & Bowman, 1985). In the study of Boyd & Gumpert (1983) it is revealed that networking as a way of socializing and support, is one of the coping mechanisms for entrepreneurial stress. Secondly, feedback is mentioned as resource, in line with previous research (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; 2008; Salanova and Schaufeli, 2008). Thirdly, autonomy is often mentioned by the respondents. Autonomy is preferred by entrepreneurs and gives them the freedom and flexibility to develop and enact initiatives through which they can achieve strategic advantages and favourable outcomes (Lumpkin et al., 2009; Parslow et al., 2004; Van Gelderen & Jansen, 2006). Besides, a flexible work schedule is needed to alleviate work-family conflict (e.g. Jennings & McDougald, 2007; Kim & Ling, 2001). The fourth dimension is outsourcing and/or task delegation, in line with Boyd & Gumpert (1983) who found delegating as one of the coping mechanisms for entrepreneurial stress. Fifthly, planning and organization of work is viewed as a job resource to deal with the heavy workload. No specific research is found on this resource. The same lack of research counts for the sixth job resource: enhancing knowledge. Self-confidence as seventh dimension is related to how a person feels about his abilities and capacities. According to Locke & Baum (in: Baum, Frese, & Baron, 2007) there are two types of self-confidence: general and task-specific. General self-confidence is synonymous for self-efficacy (Bandura,

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1997, 2000) and is an aspect of self-esteem. Chen et al. (1998) defined entrepreneurial self-efficacy as “the strength of a person’s belief that he or she is capable of successfully performing the various roles and tasks of entrepreneurship.” The positive relationship between self-efficacy of entrepreneurs and the growth and performance of their firms is found in various studies (Baum, Locke & Smith, 2001; Baum & Locke, 2004; Hmieleski & Corbett, 2008; Luthans & Ibrayeva, 2006; Markman & Baron, 2003). The last job resource mentioned is intuition. From an exploratory study by Allinson et al. (2000) it is shown that successful entrepreneurs are more intuitive than the general population of managers. They found that successful entrepreneurs must be intuitive because of the volatile environment they are operating in. The entrepreneur must deal with job demands such as time pressure, ambiguity, and uncertainty (Allinson et al., 2000). In these circumstances the entrepreneur need to take many decisions and intuition can be adapted as a job resource.

The job resources mentioned above, assist the entrepreneur in dealing with the job demands and possibly in coping with stress (Sexton & Bowman, 1985). Comparing the job resources mentioned in the interviews, with regular job resources mentioned in literature, a number have not been mentioned by the respondents, such as skill variety, participation in decision-making, supervisory coaching, and role clarity (e.g. Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bakker et al., 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The reason might be that these are more applicable to salaried employees than entrepreneurs. Job resources taken into account for the first study (Chapter 2) are the four most often mentioned resources: ‘social support’, ‘feedback’, ‘autonomy’, and ‘outsourcing’.

Conclusions

The interviews with ten very diverse entrepreneurs reveal a few job demands and job resources which seem specific for entrepreneurs, see Table 3. It is clear that the specificity lies in the emotional job demands, less in mental or physical job demands. Finding the specific entrepreneurial job demands answers the first research question positively:

Research question 1 Are there specific entrepreneurial job demands, apart from regular job demands, for entrepreneurs?

It can be confirmed that there seem to be specific entrepreneurial job demands. The next step is to formulate items for these demands and to test the validity through a quantitative study. This study is included in the first study (Chapter 2). If specific entrepreneurial job demands are confirmed, these job demands are a good starting point for studying the stress and motivational process of entrepreneurship and will

give part of the answer on the overarching research question (“How is the stress and motivational process for entrepreneurs in The Netherlands influenced by job demands and job resources, and how do these relate to well-being and business success?”).

Table 3 Specific entrepreneurial job demands and job resources

Entrepreneurial job demands	Entrepreneurial job resources
(feeling of) 24/7 availability	Social support
(feeling of) 100% commitment	Feedback
Broader and larger responsibility	Autonomy
Uncertainty	Outsourcing and/or task-delegation
Risk	

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APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE 2012

A/B

Succes en geluk van ondernemerschap

1 - Heeft u een bedrijf opgericht en/of aandelen in een bedrijf?

<input type="radio"/>	Ja
<input type="radio"/>	Nee

2 - Bent u langer dan 1 jaar als ondernemer actief?

<input type="radio"/>	Ja
<input type="radio"/>	Nee

3 - Wat is uw leeftijd?

4 - Geslacht

<input type="radio"/>	Man
<input type="radio"/>	Vrouw

5 - Waar is uw vader geboren?

<input type="radio"/>	Abu Dhabi
<input type="radio"/>	Afghanistan
<input type="radio"/>	Albanië
<input type="radio"/>	Et cetera

6 - Waar is uw moeder geboren?

<input type="radio"/>	Abu Dhabi
<input type="radio"/>	Afghanistan
<input type="radio"/>	Albanië
<input type="radio"/>	Et cetera

7 - Hoogst afgeronde opleiding

<input type="radio"/>	Voortgezet onderwijs
<input type="radio"/>	Lager beroepsonderwijs
<input type="radio"/>	Middelbaar beroepsonderwijs
<input type="radio"/>	Hoger beroepsonderwijs
<input type="radio"/>	Wetenschappelijk onderwijs

8 - Hoe lang bestaat uw bedrijf?

<input type="radio"/>	< 3 jaar
<input type="radio"/>	3-5 jaar
<input type="radio"/>	6-10 jaar
<input type="radio"/>	> 10 jaar

9 - In welke sector bent u hoofdzakelijk actief?

<input type="radio"/>	Landbouw, bosbouw en visserij
<input type="radio"/>	Winning van delfstoffen
<input type="radio"/>	Industrie
<input type="radio"/>	Productie en distributie van en handel in elektriciteit, aardgas stoom en gekoelde lucht
<input type="radio"/>	Winning en distributie van water; afval- en afvalwaterbeheer

A/B

	en sanering
<input type="radio"/>	Bouwnijverheid
<input type="radio"/>	Groot- en detailhandel; reparatie van auto's
<input type="radio"/>	Vervoer en opslag
<input type="radio"/>	Logies- , maaltijd- en drankverstrekking
<input type="radio"/>	Informatie en communicatie
<input type="radio"/>	Financiële instellingen
<input type="radio"/>	Verhuur van en handel in onroerend goed
<input type="radio"/>	Advisering, onderzoek en overige specialistische zakelijke dienstverlening
<input type="radio"/>	Verhuur van roerende goederen en overige zakelijke dienstverlening
<input type="radio"/>	Openbaar bestuur, overheidsdiensten en verplichte sociale verzekeringen
<input type="radio"/>	Onderwijs
<input type="radio"/>	Gezondheids- en welzijnszorg
<input type="radio"/>	Cultuur, sport en recreatie
<input type="radio"/>	Overige dienstverlening

10 - Wat is de reikwijdte van uw activiteiten?

<input type="radio"/>	Lokaal
<input type="radio"/>	Regionaal
<input type="radio"/>	Landelijk
<input type="radio"/>	Internationaal

11 - Bent u de (mede-)oprichter van het bedrijf?

<input type="radio"/>	Ja
<input type="radio"/>	Nee

12 - Is uw onderneming een familiebedrijf van meerdere generaties?

<input type="radio"/>	Ja
<input type="radio"/>	Nee

13 - Bent u de enige aandeelhouder of eigenaar?

<input type="radio"/>	Ja
<input type="radio"/>	Nee

14 - Is of was één van uw ouders ondernemer?

<input type="radio"/>	Ja
<input type="radio"/>	Nee

15 - Hoeveel medewerkers (in FTE) heeft u in dienst?

16 - Wat is de verwachte verandering in aantal medewerkers in 2012?

<input type="radio"/>	Het aantal stijgt
<input type="radio"/>	Het aantal blijft gelijk
<input type="radio"/>	Het aantal daalt

17 - Wat was over 2011 uw omzet?

<input type="radio"/>	< € 25.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 25.000 en € 50.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 50.000 en € 100.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 100.000 en € 250.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 250.000 en € 500.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 500.000 en € 2 miljoen
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 2 miljoen en € 10 miljoen
<input type="radio"/>	Meer dan € 10 miljoen

18 - Wat is de verwachte omzetverandering in 2012?

<input type="radio"/>	De omzet stijgt
<input type="radio"/>	De omzet blijft gelijk
<input type="radio"/>	De omzet daalt

19 - Wat was over 2011 uw winst?

<input type="radio"/>	Minder dan € 25.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 25.000 en € 50.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 50.000 en € 100.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 100.000 en € 250.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 250.000 en € 500.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 500.000 en € 2 miljoen
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 2 miljoen en € 10 miljoen
<input type="radio"/>	Meer dan € 10 miljoen

20 - Wat is de verwachte winstverandering in 2012?

<input type="radio"/>	De winst stijgt
<input type="radio"/>	De winst blijft gelijk
<input type="radio"/>	De winst daalt

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
21 - Een hoog inkomen voor uzelf en uw gezin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stijging van uw	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

A/B

(gezins)inkomen					
Huidige inkomenszekerheid voor uzelf en uw gezin	O	O	O	O	O
Toekomstige inkomenszekerheid voor uzelf en uw gezin	O	O	O	O	O
Uzelf materieel veel kunnen permitteren	O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
22 - Winstgevendheid	O	O	O	O	O
Winstgroei	O	O	O	O	O
Omzet	O	O	O	O	O
Omzetgroei	O	O	O	O	O
Groeiend marktaandeel, bedrijfsexpansie	O	O	O	O	O
Innovatie (bijv. invoering van nieuwe producten, diensten of productiemethodes)	O	O	O	O	O
Goede kwaliteit van producten en diensten (bijv. de beste in uw branche zijn)	O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt	Nvt
23 - Groei in aantal medewerkers	O	O	O	O	O	O
Goede solvabiliteit (bedrijf is eventueel te verkopten met winst)	O	O	O	O	O	O
Creëren van arbeidsplaatsen	O	O	O	O	O	O
Sociale verantwoordelijkheid richting de medewerkers	O	O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
24 - Maatschappelijke bijdrage, deelname aan publieke activiteiten	O	O	O	O	O
Bijdrage aan de verbetering van het milieu (bijv. recycling)	O	O	O	O	O
Sociale erkenning (bijv. publieke)	O	O	O	O	O

belangstelling,
aanzien, reputatie)
Professionele
erkenning (bijv.
aanzien en respect
onder
branchegenoten)

O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
25 - Goede balans tussen werk en privé (bijv. tijd voor jezelf)	O	O	O	O	O
Persoonlijke relaties en netwerken onderhouden	O	O	O	O	O
Goede gezondheid, zowel mentaal als fysiek	O	O	O	O	O
Intellectuele activiteiten aangaan (bijv. nieuwe kennis verwerven)	O	O	O	O	O
Uw eigen werk flexibel kunnen plannen (bijv. waar en wanneer u werkt)	O	O	O	O	O
Beslissingsvrijheid voor uzelf (eigen baas zijn, autonomie en vrijheid om eigen beslissingen te nemen)	O	O	O	O	O
Eigen visie uitdragen	O	O	O	O	O
Uzelf persoonlijk verder ontwikkelen	O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt	Nvt
26 - Goede verhoudingen met medewerkers	O	O	O	O	O	O
Tevredenheid van medewerkers	O	O	O	O	O	O
Loyaliteit van medewerkers	O	O	O	O	O	O
Stimulerende bedrijfscultuur (bijv. waardering, goede mentaliteit)	O	O	O	O	O	O
Goede relaties met investeerders (bijv. banken)	O	O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
27 - Goede relaties	O	O	O	O	O

A/B

met klanten (bijv. positief imago)				
Tevredenheid van klanten	O	O	O	O
Loyaliteit van klanten	O	O	O	O

Eisen in het werk (deel 1)

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
28 - Is uw werk als ondernemer emotioneel zwaar?	O	O	O	O
Vindt u uw werk als ondernemer ingewikkeld?	O	O	O	O
Heeft u moeite met uw werk als ondernemer, omdat het in de loop der tijd steeds ingewikkelder is geworden?	O	O	O	O
Moet u als ondernemer werk doen dat te moeilijk voor u is?	O	O	O	O
Voelt het alsof u 24 uur per dag bereikbaar moet zijn voor uw bedrijf?	O	O	O	O
Voelt het alsof u 24 uur per dag beschikbaar moet zijn voor uw bedrijf?	O	O	O	O
Is het alsof uw bedrijf 24 uur per dag in uw gedachten is?	O	O	O	O
Is het alsof u 24 uur per dag met uw bedrijf bezig bent?	O	O	O	O
Voelt het alsof u alleen succesvol kunt zijn als u 100% voor uw bedrijf gaat?	O	O	O	O
Vindt u het zwaar om voor 100% voor uw bedrijf te gaan?	O	O	O	O
Voelt het succes van uw bedrijf als uw persoonlijk succes?	O	O	O	O
Voelt het falen van uw bedrijf als uw persoonlijk falen?	O	O	O	O

Eisen in het werk (deel 2)

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit	Nvt
29 - Voelt u zich 100% verantwoordelijk voor het welzijn en de toekomst van alle medewerkers van uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voelt u zich 100% verantwoordelijk voor het welzijn en de toekomst van van uw compagnon(s)?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Eisen in het werk (deel 3)

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
30 - Wordt u in uw werk als ondernemer met dingen geconfronteerd die u persoonlijk raken?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voelt u zich 100% verantwoordelijk voor het functioneren van uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voelt u zich 100% verantwoordelijk voor de tevredenheid van de klanten van uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Heeft u in uw werk als ondernemer contacten met lastige klanten van uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Moet u voor uw werk als ondernemer mensen kunnen overtuigen of overreden?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Komt u door uw werk als ondernemer in aangrijpende situaties terecht?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vindt u het moeilijk om te gaan met onzekerheid over het functioneren van uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vindt u het moeilijk om te gaan met onzekerheid over het functioneren van uzelf als ondernemer?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vindt u het zwaar om het initiatief te nemen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

A/B

om uw bedrijf in goede banen te leiden?				
Vindt u het moeilijk om besluiten te nemen voor uw bedrijf?	O	O	O	O
Vindt u het lastig om zaken aangaande uw bedrijf te delegeren of uit te besteden?	O	O	O	O
Vindt u het lastig om te gaan met risico's aangaande uw bedrijf?	O	O	O	O

Autonomie

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
31 - Heeft u invloed op de koers van uw bedrijf?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u bepalen welke doelen uw bedrijf nastreeft?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u beslissen OF uw bedrijf activiteiten uitvoert?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u beslissen HOE uw bedrijf de activiteiten uitvoert?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u beslissen of uw bedrijf activiteiten uitbesteedt?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u bepalen welke taken of opdrachten uw bedrijf uitvoert?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u bepalen welke klanten door uw bedrijf worden benaderd?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u taken en verantwoordelijkheden delegeren aan anderen?	O	O	O	O

Werktempo en werkhoeveelheid

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
32 - Heeft u te veel werk te doen?	O	O	O	O
Moet u extra hard werken om iets af te krijgen?	O	O	O	O
Moet u zich haasten?	O	O	O	O
Heeft u te maken met een achterstand in uw werkzaamheden?	O	O	O	O
Heeft u problemen met het werktempo?	O	O	O	O
Heeft u problemen met de werkdruk?	O	O	O	O

Afwisseling in het werk

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
33 - Is voor uw werk creativiteit vereist?	O	O	O	O
Is uw werk gevarieerd?	O	O	O	O
Vraagt uw werk een eigen inbreng?	O	O	O	O
Heeft u in uw werk voldoende afwisseling?	O	O	O	O

Leermogelijkheden

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
34 - Leert u nieuwe dingen in uw werk?	O	O	O	O
Biedt uw werk u mogelijkheden voor persoonlijke groei en ontwikkeling?	O	O	O	O
Geeft uw werk u het gevoel iets ermee te kunnen bereiken?	O	O	O	O
Biedt uw werk u mogelijkheden voor zelfstandig denken en doen?	O	O	O	O

Zelfstandigheid in het werk

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
35 - Heeft u vrijheid bij het uitvoeren van uw werkzaamheden binnen uw bedrijf?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u zelf bepalen hoe u uw werk binnen uw bedrijf uitvoert?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u zelf bepalen hoeveel tijd u aan een bepaalde activiteit binnen uw bedrijf besteedt?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u uw werk als ondernemer zelf indelen?	O	O	O	O

Relatie met compagnons

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit	Nvt
36 - Kunt u op uw compagnon(s) rekenen wanneer u het in uw werk wat moeilijk krijgt?	O	O	O	O	O

A/B

Kunt u als dat nodig is uw compagnon(s) om hulp vragen?	O	O	O	O	O
Is uw verstandhouding met compagnon(s) goed?	O	O	O	O	O
Heeft u conflicten met uw compagnon(s)?	O	O	O	O	O
Heerst er tussen u en uw compagnon(s) een prettige sfeer?	O	O	O	O	O
Doen zich tussen u en uw compagnon(s) vervelende gebeurtenissen voor?	O	O	O	O	O

Relatie met medewerkers

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit	Nvt
37 - Kunt u op uw medewerker(s) rekenen wanneer u het in uw werk wat moeilijk krijgt?	O	O	O	O	O
Kunt u als dat nodig is uw medewerker(s) om hulp vragen?	O	O	O	O	O
Is uw verstandhouding met medewerker(s) goed?	O	O	O	O	O
Heeft u conflicten met uw medewerker(s)?	O	O	O	O	O
Heerst er tussen u en uw medewerker(s) een prettige sfeer?	O	O	O	O	O
Doen zich tussen u en uw medewerker(s) vervelende gebeurtenissen voor?	O	O	O	O	O

Feedback

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
38 - Krijgt u voldoende informatie over het doel van uw werk als ondernemer?	O	O	O	O
Krijgt u voldoende informatie over het resultaat van uw werk als ondernemer?	O	O	O	O
Biedt uw werk mogelijkheden om	O	O	O	O

erachter te komen hoe goed u uw werk doet als ondernemer?
Biedt uw werk rechtstreeks informatie over hoe goed u uw werk doet als ondernemer?

O	O	O	O

Organisatie van het werk

39 - Kunt u het werk waarmee u bezig bent achter elkaar afmaken?

Wordt u in uw werk gehinderd door onverwachte situaties?

Loopt uw werk anders dan u het zelf had gewild?

Komen er storingen voor in uw werk?

Moet u wachten op anderen voor u met uw werk verder kunt?

Wordt u gehinderd door gebreken in het werk van anderen?

Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O

De volgende vragen gaan over de invloed die uw werk kan hebben op uw thuissituatie. Hoe vaak komt het voor dat ...

40 - u thuis prikkelbaar bent, omdat uw werk veeleisend is?

u moeilijk aan uw verplichtingen thuis kunt voldoen, omdat u in gedachten steeds met uw werk bezig bent?

u thuis efficiënter met uw tijd omgaat door de manier waarop u uw werk uitvoert?

u thuis beter functioneert in omgang met uw partner/familie/vrienden door dingen die u op het werk leert?

u zich thuis beter aan afspraken houdt, omdat dat op het werk ook van u

Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O

A/B

gevraagd wordt?
u door uw werk geen energie
heeft om met uw
partner/familie/vrienden
leuke dingen te doen?

O	O	O	O

Herstel na werk

41 - Ik vind het
moeilijk om me te
ontspannen aan het
einde van een
werkdag.
Aan het einde van een
werkdag ben ik echt
op.
Mijn werk als
ondernemer maakt
dat ik me aan het eind
van een werkdag
nogal uitgeput voel.
Het kost mij moeite
om me te
concentreren in mijn
vrije uren na het
werk.
Ik kan weinig
belangstelling
opbrengen voor
andere mensen,
wanneer ik zelf net
thuis ben gekomen.
Als ik thuis kom
moeten ze mij even
met rust laten.

Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O

Hieronder vindt u een aantal stellingen over uw vrije tijd na afloop van de werkdag. Wilt u aangeven of de stelling voor u van toepassing is door het best passende antwoord aan te vinken? Nadat het werk is afgelopen ...

42 - Heb ik het
gevoel dat ik voor
mezelf kan
beslissen wat ik
doe.
Bepaal ik mijn
eigen tijdschema.
Denk ik helemaal
niet aan het werk.
Bepaal ik voor
mezelf hoe ik
mijn tijd wil

Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Neutraal	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O

besteden.

Neem ik afstand van mijn werk.

Neem ik tijd voor ontspannende activiteiten.

Gebruik ik de tijd om te relaxen.

Ontspan ik me.

Kom ik los van de eisen van het werk.

O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O

Hieronder vindt u 5 uitspraken waarmee u akkoord of niet akkoord kunt gaan. Toon aan in welke mate u het eens bent met elke uitspraak door het juiste antwoord aan te vinken dat het meeste op u van toepassing is.

43 - In de meeste gevallen is mijn leven bijna ideaal.
Mijn levensomstandigheden zijn uitstekend.
Ik ben tevreden met het leven.
Tot nu toe heb ik de belangrijkste dingen in mijn leven bereikt.
Als ik mijn leven opnieuw kon beginnen, dan zou ik bijna niets veranderen.

Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Neutraal	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O

Hieronder vindt u 5 uitspraken waarmee u akkoord of niet akkoord kunt gaan. Toon aan in welke mate u het eens bent met elke uitspraak door het juiste antwoord aan te vinken dat het meeste op u van toepassing is.

44 - In de meeste gevallen verloopt mijn ondernemerschap bijna ideaal.
Mijn werkomstandigheden als ondernemer zijn uitstekend.
Ik ben tevreden met mijn ondernemerschap.
Tot nu toe heb ik de belangrijkste dingen in mijn ondernemerschap bereikt.

Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Neutraal	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O	O

A/B

Als ik mijn ondernemerschap opnieuw kon beginnen, dan zou ik bijna niets veranderen.

O	O	O	O	O
---	---	---	---	---

De volgende uitspraken hebben betrekking op hoe u uw werk beleeft en hoe u zich daarbij voelt. Wilt u aangeven hoe vaak iedere uitspraak op u van toepassing is door steeds het best passende cijfer (van 0 tot 6) in te vullen?

	Nooit	Een paar keer per jaar of minder	Eens per maand of minder	Een paar keer per maand	Eens per week	Een paar keer per week	Dagelijks
45 - Op mijn werk bruis ik van energie.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Als ik werk voel ik me fit en sterk.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Ik ben enthousiast over mijn werk.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Mijn werk inspireert mij.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Als ik 's morgens opsta heb ik zin om aan het werk te gaan.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Wanneer ik heel intensief aan het werk ben, voel ik mij gelukkig.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Ik ben trots op het werk dat ik doe.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Ik ga helemaal op in mijn werk.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Mijn werk brengt mij in vervoering.	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

46 - Wilt u de resultaten van het onderzoek ontvangen?

O	Ja
O	Nee

47 - Wilt u in de toekomst deelnemen aan het (kortere) vervolgonderzoek?

O	Ja
O	Nee

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE 2014

A/C

Succes en geluk van ondernemers (follow-up)

1 - Heeft u een bedrijf opgericht en/of aandelen in een bedrijf?

<input type="radio"/>	Ja
<input type="radio"/>	Nee

2 - Hoogst afgeronde opleiding

<input type="radio"/>	Voortgezet onderwijs
<input type="radio"/>	Lager beroepsonderwijs
<input type="radio"/>	Middelbaar beroepsonderwijs
<input type="radio"/>	Hoger beroepsonderwijs
<input type="radio"/>	Wetenschappelijk onderwijs

3 - Hoe lang bestaat uw bedrijf?

<input type="radio"/>	< 3 jaar
<input type="radio"/>	3-5 jaar
<input type="radio"/>	6-10 jaar
<input type="radio"/>	> 10 jaar

4 - In welke sector bent u hoofdzakelijk actief?

<input type="radio"/>	Landbouw, bosbouw en visserij
<input type="radio"/>	Winning van delfstoffen
<input type="radio"/>	Industrie
<input type="radio"/>	Productie en distributie van en handel in elektriciteit, aardgas stoom en gekoelde lucht
<input type="radio"/>	Winning en distributie van water; afval- en afvalwaterbeheer en sanering
<input type="radio"/>	Bouwnijverheid
<input type="radio"/>	Groot- en detailhandel; reparatie van auto's
<input type="radio"/>	Vervoer en opslag
<input type="radio"/>	Logies-, maaltijd- en drankverstrekking
<input type="radio"/>	Informatie en communicatie
<input type="radio"/>	Financiële instellingen
<input type="radio"/>	Verhuur van en handel in onroerend goed
<input type="radio"/>	Advisering, onderzoek en overige specialistische zakelijke

A/C

	dienstverlening
O	Verhuur van roerende goederen en overige zakelijke dienstverlening
O	Openbaar bestuur, overheidsdiensten en verplichte sociale verzekeringen
O	Onderwijs
O	Gezondheids- en welzijnszorg
O	Cultuur, sport en recreatie
O	Overige dienstverlening

5 - Hoeveel uren per week bent u als ondernemer actief?

6 - Wat is de reikwijdte van uw activiteiten?

O	Lokaal
O	Regionaal
O	Landelijk
O	Internationaal

7 - Bent u de (mede-)oprichter van het bedrijf?

O	Ja
O	Nee

8 - Bent u de enige aandeelhouder of eigenaar?

O	Ja
O	Nee

9 - Hoeveel medewerkers (in FTE) heeft u in dienst?

10 - Hoeveel mensen zijn er werkzaam in het bedrijf, uzelf niet meegerekend?

11 - Wat is de verwachte verandering in aantal medewerkers in 2014?

O	Het aantal stijgt
O	Het aantal blijft gelijk
O	Het aantal daalt

12 - Wat was over 2013 uw omzet?

O	< € 25.000
O	Tussen € 25.000 en € 50.000
O	Tussen € 50.000 en € 100.000
O	Tussen € 100.000 en € 250.000
O	Tussen € 250.000 en € 500.000
O	Tussen € 500.000 en € 2 miljoen
O	Tussen € 2 miljoen en € 10 miljoen
O	Meer dan € 10 miljoen

13 - Wat is de verwachte omzetverandering in 2014?

<input type="radio"/>	De omzet stijgt
<input type="radio"/>	De omzet blijft gelijk
<input type="radio"/>	De omzet daalt

14 - Wat was over 2013 uw winst?

<input type="radio"/>	Minder dan € 25.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 25.000 en € 50.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 50.000 en € 100.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 100.000 en € 250.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 250.000 en € 500.000
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 500.000 en € 2 miljoen
<input type="radio"/>	Tussen € 2 miljoen en € 10 miljoen
<input type="radio"/>	Meer dan € 10 miljoen

15 - Wat is de verwachte winstverandering in 2014?

<input type="radio"/>	De winst stijgt
<input type="radio"/>	De winst blijft gelijk
<input type="radio"/>	De winst daalt

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
16 - Een hoog inkomen voor uzelf en uw gezin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Stijging van uw (gezins)inkomen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Huidige inkomenszekerheid voor uzelf en uw gezin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Toekomstige inkomenszekerheid voor uzelf en uw gezin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Uzelf materieel veel kunnen permitteren	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
17 - Winstgevendheid	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Winstgroei	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Omzet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Omzetgroei	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Groeiend marktaandeel, bedrijfsexpansie	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Innovatie (bijv.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

A/C

invoering van nieuwe producten, diensten of productiemethodes)
Goede kwaliteit van producten en diensten (bijv. de beste in uw branche zijn)

O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
18 - Groei in aantal medewerkers	O	O	O	O	O
Goede solvabiliteit (bedrijf is eventueel te verkopen met winst)	O	O	O	O	O
Creëren van arbeidsplaatsen	O	O	O	O	O
Sociale verantwoordelijkheid richting de medewerkers	O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
19 - Maatschappelijke bijdrage, deelname aan publieke activiteiten	O	O	O	O	O
Bijdrage aan de verbetering van het milieu (bijv. recycling)	O	O	O	O	O
Sociale erkenning (bijv. publieke belangstelling, aanzien, reputatie)	O	O	O	O	O
Professionele erkenning (bijv. aanzien en respect onder branchegenoten)	O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
20 - Goede balans tussen werk en privé (bijv. tijd voor jezelf)	O	O	O	O	O
Persoonlijke relaties en netwerken onderhouden	O	O	O	O	O
Goede gezondheid,	O	O	O	O	O

zowel mentaal als fysiek					
Intellectuele activiteiten aangaan (bijv. nieuwe kennis verwerven)	O	O	O	O	O
Uw eigen werk flexibel kunnen plannen (bijv. waar en wanneer u werkt)	O	O	O	O	O
Beslissingsvrijheid voor uzelf (eigen baas zijn, autonomie en vrijheid om eigen beslissingen te nemen)	O	O	O	O	O
Eigen visie uitdragen	O	O	O	O	O
Uzelf persoonlijk verder ontwikkelen	O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
21 - Goede verhoudingen met medewerkers	O	O	O	O	O
Tevredenheid van medewerkers	O	O	O	O	O
Loyaliteit van medewerkers	O	O	O	O	O
Stimulerende bedrijfscultuur (bijv. waardering, goede mentaliteit)	O	O	O	O	O
Goede relaties met investeerders (bijv. banken)	O	O	O	O	O

U kunt aangeven in welke mate u de genoemde criteria voor succes heeft bereikt in het laatste jaar.

	Helemaal niet bereikt				Helemaal bereikt
22 - Goede relaties met klanten (bijv. positief imago)	O	O	O	O	O
Tevredenheid van klanten	O	O	O	O	O
Loyaliteit van klanten	O	O	O	O	O

Eisen in het werk (deel 1)

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
23 - Is uw werk als ondernemer emotioneel zwaar?	O	O	O	O

A/C

Vindt u uw werk als ondernemer ingewikkeld?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Heeft u moeite met uw werk als ondernemer, omdat het in de loop der tijd steeds ingewikkelder is geworden?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Moet u als ondernemer werk doen dat te moeilijk voor u is?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voelt het alsof u 24 uur per dag bereikbaar moet zijn voor uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voelt het alsof u 24 uur per dag beschikbaar moet zijn voor uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is het alsof uw bedrijf 24 uur per dag in uw gedachten is?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is het alsof u 24 uur per dag met uw bedrijf bezig bent?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voelt het alsof u alleen succesvol kunt zijn als u 100% voor uw bedrijf gaat?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vindt u het zwaar om voor 100% voor uw bedrijf te gaan?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voelt het falen van uw bedrijf als uw persoonlijk falen?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Eisen in het werk (deel 2)

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
24 - Wordt u in uw werk als ondernemer met dingen geconfronteerd die u persoonlijk raken?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voelt u zich 100% verantwoordelijk voor het functioneren van uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voelt u zich 100% verantwoordelijk voor de tevredenheid van de klanten van uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Heeft u in uw werk als ondernemer contacten met lastige klanten van uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Moet u voor uw werk als ondernemer mensen kunnen overtuigen of overreden?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Komt u door uw werk als ondernemer in aangrijpende situaties terecht?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vindt u het moeilijk om te gaan met onzekerheid over het functioneren van uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vindt u het moeilijk om te gaan met onzekerheid over het functioneren van uzelf als ondernemer?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vindt u het zwaar om het initiatief te nemen om uw bedrijf in goede banen te leiden?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vindt u het moeilijk om besluiten te nemen voor uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vindt u het lastig om zaken aangaande uw bedrijf te delegeren of uit te besteden?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vindt u het lastig om te gaan met risico's aangaande uw bedrijf?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Eisen in het werk (deel 3)

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
25 - Voelt u zich er verantwoordelijk voor dat taken of verplichtingen goed moeten worden uitgevoerd?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hebt u het gevoel dat alles op u neerkomt?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Voelt het alsof u verantwoordelijk bent voor alles wat anderen doen?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is het duidelijk waarvoor u wel en niet verantwoordelijk bent?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

A/C

Autonomie

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
26 - Heeft u invloed op de koers van uw bedrijf?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u bepalen welke doelen uw bedrijf nastreeft?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u beslissen OF uw bedrijf activiteiten uitvoert?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u beslissen HOE uw bedrijf de activiteiten uitvoert?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u beslissen of uw bedrijf activiteiten uitbestedt?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u bepalen welke taken of opdrachten uw bedrijf uitvoert?	O	O	O	O
Kunt u bepalen welke klanten door uw bedrijf worden benaderd?	O	O	O	O

Werktempo en werkhoeveelheid

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
27 - Heeft u te veel werk te doen?	O	O	O	O
Moet u extra hard werken om iets af te krijgen?	O	O	O	O
Moet u zich haasten?	O	O	O	O
Heeft u te maken met een achterstand in uw werkzaamheden?	O	O	O	O
Heeft u problemen met het werktempo?	O	O	O	O
Heeft u problemen met de werkdruk?	O	O	O	O

Afwisseling in het werk

	Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
28 - Is voor uw werk creativiteit vereist?	O	O	O	O
Is uw werk gevarieerd?	O	O	O	O
Vraagt uw werk een eigen inbreng?	O	O	O	O
Heeft u in uw werk	O	O	O	O

voldoende
afwisseling?

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Leermogelijkheden

29 - Leert u nieuwe
dingen in uw werk?

Biedt uw werk u
mogelijkheden voor
persoonlijke groei en
ontwikkeling?

Geeft uw werk u het
gevoel iets ermee te
kunnen bereiken?

Biedt uw werk u
mogelijkheden voor
zelfstandig denken en
doen?

Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O

Zelfstandigheid in het werk

30 - Heeft u vrijheid bij
het uitvoeren van uw
werkzaamheden binnen
uw bedrijf?

Kunt u zelf bepalen hoe
u uw werk binnen uw
bedrijf uitvoert?

Kunt u zelf bepalen
hoeveel tijd u aan een
bepaalde activiteit
binnen uw bedrijf
besteedt?

Kunt u uw werk als
ondernemer zelf
indelen?

Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O

Relatie met familie/vrienden

31 - Kunt u op uw
familie en/of vrienden
rekenen wanneer u het
in uw werk wat
moeilijk krijgt?

Kunt u als dat nodig is
uw familie en/of
vrienden om hulp
vragen?

Is uw verstandhouding
met familie en/of
vrienden goed?

Heeft u conflicten met
uw familie en/of

Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O

A/C

vrienden?

Heerst er tussen u en uw familie en/of vrienden een prettige sfeer?

Doen zich tussen u en uw familie en/of vrienden vervelende gebeurtenissen voor?

O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O

Feedback

32 - Krijgt u voldoende informatie over het doel van uw werk als ondernemer?

Krijgt u voldoende informatie over het resultaat van uw werk als ondernemer?

Biedt uw werk mogelijkheden om erachter te komen hoe goed u uw werk doet als ondernemer?

Biedt uw werk rechtstreeks informatie over hoe goed u uw werk doet als ondernemer?

Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O

Organisatie van het werk

33 - Kunt u het werk waarmee u bezig bent achter elkaar afmaken?

Wordt u in uw werk gehinderd door onverwachte situaties?

Loopt uw werk anders dan u het zelf had gewild?

Komen er storingen voor in uw werk?

Moet u wachten op anderen voor u met uw werk verder kunt?

Wordt u gehinderd door gebreken in het werk van anderen?

Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O
O	O	O	O

De volgende vragen gaan over de invloed die uw werk kan hebben op uw thuissituatie. Hoe vaak komt het voor dat ...

34 - u thuis prikkelbaar bent, omdat uw werk veeleisend is?
u moeilijk aan uw verplichtingen thuis kunt voldoen, omdat u in gedachten steeds met uw werk bezig bent?
u thuis efficiënter met uw tijd omgaat door de manier waarop u uw werk uitvoert?
u thuis beter functioneert in omgang met uw partner/familie/vrienden door dingen die u op het werk leert?
u zich thuis beter aan afspraken houdt, omdat dat op het werk ook van u gevraagd wordt?
u door uw werk geen energie heeft om met uw partner/familie/vrienden leuke dingen te doen?

Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Herstel na werk

35 - Ik vind het moeilijk om me te ontspannen aan het einde van een werkdag.
Aan het einde van een werkdag ben ik echt op.
Mijn werk als ondernemer maakt dat ik me aan het eind van een werkdag nogal uitgeput voel.
Het kost mij moeite om me te concentreren in mijn vrije uren na het werk.
Ik kan weinig belangstelling opbrengen voor andere mensen, wanneer ik zelf net

Altijd	Vaak	Soms	Nooit
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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thuis ben gekomen.
Als ik thuis kom
moeten ze mij even
met rust laten.

O	O	O	O

Hieronder vindt u een aantal stellingen over uw vrije tijd na afloop van de werkdag. Wilt u aangeven of de stelling voor u van toepassing is door het best passende antwoord aan te vinken? Nadat het werk is afgelopen ...

	Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Neutraal	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
36 - Heb ik het gevoel dat ik voor mijzelf kan beslissen wat ik doe.	O	O	O	O	O
Bepaal ik mijn eigen tijdschema.	O	O	O	O	O
Denk ik helemaal niet aan het werk.	O	O	O	O	O
Bepaal ik voor mijzelf hoe ik mijn tijd wil besteden.	O	O	O	O	O
Neem ik afstand van mijn werk.	O	O	O	O	O
Neem ik tijd voor ontspannende activiteiten.	O	O	O	O	O
Gebruik ik de tijd om te relaxen.	O	O	O	O	O
Ontspan ik me.	O	O	O	O	O
Kom ik los van de eisen van het werk.	O	O	O	O	O

Hieronder vindt u 5 uitspraken waarmee u akkoord of niet akkoord kunt gaan. Toon aan in welke mate u het eens bent met elke uitspraak door het juiste antwoord aan te vinken dat het meeste op u van toepassing is.

	Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Neutraal	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
37 - In de meeste gevallen is mijn leven bijna ideaal.	O	O	O	O	O
Mijn levensomstandigheden zijn uitstekend.	O	O	O	O	O
Ik ben tevreden met het leven.	O	O	O	O	O
Tot nu toe heb ik de belangrijkste dingen in mijn leven bereikt.	O	O	O	O	O
Als ik mijn leven opnieuw kon beginnen,	O	O	O	O	O

dan zou ik bijna niets veranderen.

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Hieronder vindt u 5 uitspraken waarmee u akkoord of niet akkoord kunt gaan. Toon aan in welke mate u het eens bent met elke uitspraak door het juiste antwoord aan te vinken dat het meeste op u van toepassing is.

38 - In de meeste gevallen verloopt mijn ondernemerschap bijna ideaal.
Mijn werkomstandigheden als ondernemer zijn uitstekend.
Ik ben tevreden met mijn ondernemerschap.
Tot nu toe heb ik de belangrijkste dingen in mijn ondernemerschap bereikt.
Als ik mijn ondernemerschap opnieuw kon beginnen, dan zou ik bijna niets veranderen.

Helemaal mee oneens	Mee oneens	Neutraal	Mee eens	Helemaal mee eens
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

De volgende uitspraken hebben betrekking op hoe u uw werk beleeft en hoe u zich daarbij voelt. Wilt u aangeven hoe vaak iedere uitspraak op u van toepassing is door steeds het best passende cijfer (van 0 tot 6) in te vullen?

	Nooit	Een paar keer per jaar of minder	Eens per maand of minder	Een paar keer per maand	Eens per week	Een paar keer per week	Dagelijks
39 - Op mijn werk bruis ik van energie.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Als ik werk voel ik me fit en sterk.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik ben enthousiast over mijn werk.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mijn werk inspireert mij.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Als ik 's morgens opsta heb ik zin om aan het werk te	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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gaan.							
Wanneer ik heel intensief aan het werk ben, voel ik mij gelukkig.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik ben trots op het werk dat ik doe.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik ga helemaal op in mijn werk.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mijn werk brengt mij in vervoering.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

De volgende vragen hebben betrekking op uw werktijden en hoe u zich daarbij voelt. Wilt u bij de desbetreffende vragen aangeven hoe vaak iedere uitspraak op u van toepassing is door steeds het best passende cijfer (van 1 tot 4) te omcirkelen?

	(Bijna) altijd	Dikwijls	Af en toe	(Bijna) nooit
40 - Ik heb haast en werk tegen deadlines aan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik werk door terwijl mijn collega-ondernemers al naar huis zijn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik vind het belangrijk om hard te werken, zelfs als ik eigenlijk geen plezier heb in mijn bezigheden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik ben druk en heb veel ijzers tegelijk in het vuur	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik heb het gevoel dat iets in mijzelf me dwingt hard te werken	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik besteed meer tijd aan mijn werk dan aan mijn vrienden, hobby's of andere vrijetijdsactiviteiten	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik voel me verplicht hard te werken, ook al vind ik dat niet altijd prettig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik ben met meerdere dingen tegelijk bezig, ik schrijf bijvoorbeeld een memo terwijl ik eet en met iemand telefoneer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik voel me schuldig als ik vrij neem van mijn werk	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik vind het moeilijk om me te ontspannen als ik niet aan het werk ben	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Altijd waar	Bijna altijd waar	Dikwijls waar	Soms waar	Zelden waar	Bijna nooit waar	Nooit waar
41 - Het is OK als ik me iets onaangenaams herinner	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mijn pijnlijke ervaringen en herinneringen maken het me moeilijk om een waardevol leven te leiden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik ben bang voor mijn gevoelens	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik maak me zorgen dat ik niet in staat ben mijn zorgen en gevoelens onder controle te houden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mijn pijnlijke herinneringen verhinderen mij een bevredigend leven te leiden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ik heb controle over mijn leven	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Emoties veroorzaken problemen in mijn leven	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Het lijkt erop dat de meeste mensen meer controle over hun leven hebben dan ik	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Zorgen staan mijn succes in de weg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Mijn gedachten en gevoelens staan de manier waarop ik wil leven niet in de weg	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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42 - Wilt u de resultaten van het onderzoek ontvangen?

<input type="radio"/>	Ja
<input type="radio"/>	Nee

APPENDIX D

ENTREPRENEURIAL JOB DEMANDS SCALE

A/D

Time demands

1. Does it feel as if you have to be within reach for your company 24 hours a day?
2. Does it feel as if you have to be available for your company 24 hours a day?
3. Is it as if your company is in your mind 24 hours a day?
4. Is it as if you are busy with your company 24 hours a day?
5. Does it feel as if you can only be successful if you dedicate yourself to your company for 100%?

Uncertainty & risk

6. Do you find it difficult to cope with uncertainty about the functioning of the company?
7. Do you find it difficult to cope with uncertainty about the functioning of yourself as entrepreneur?
8. Do you find it hard to take the initiative to lead your company on the right track?
9. Do you find it hard to make decisions for your company?
10. Do you find it hard to handle risks concerning your company?
11. Do you find it hard to go for 100% for your company?

Responsibility

12. Do you feel yourself 100% responsible for the functioning of your company?
13. Do you feel yourself 100% responsible for the satisfaction of the customers of your company?
14. Does the failure of your company feel like your personal failure?

APPENDIX E
ARTICLE: 'A SUCCESSFUL ENTREPRENEUR
IS A SATISFIED ENTREPRENEUR'

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Economisch statistische berichten Dossier Ecosystemen, 99, 72-74.

A/E

A successful entrepreneur is a satisfied entrepreneur

How satisfied an entrepreneur is about his/her entrepreneurship, depends on the degree he/she experiences success. The subjective success of the entrepreneur is dependent on various factors, such as achieving financial success and reaching personal aims. A more individual approach of entrepreneurs with attention for the different factors which contribute to the perceived success, is desirable.

In the academic world we see a growing interest for subjective parameters of success, next to the still prevailing focus on the objective measures, like number of employees and turnover (Van Praag and Versloot, 2007). From literature it appears that entrepreneurs value more subjective indicators like autonomy, personal satisfaction, relationships with clients, and flexibility (Kuratko et al., 1997). A more psychological approach for business success acknowledges the importance of such personal ambitions and goals.

Such approach is interesting as it gives a helping hand to improve entrepreneurs' well-being. Therefore this study relates subjective success of the entrepreneur to well-being, so: how does subjective success influence his/her satisfaction? Entrepreneurs constitute the heart of our economy and by making them more successful and happier, we do not only stimulate the economy, but also the well-being of these people and possibly their environment.

Subjective business success and satisfaction

Micro economics is aimed at utility maximalization, which in fact is about happiness. Also in the daily work of the entrepreneur this is order of the day. As an entrepreneur, are you still doing the things that make you happy? Happiness is the experience of positive feelings, often called subjective well-being in literature. Types of well-being are satisfaction about your life and satisfaction about your work. Among the many factors influencing well-being, work is very important. Unemployed people are far less happy than working people, even if low income is controlled for. What we know about entrepreneurs is that they are more satisfied about their job than employees (Andersson, 2008). Besides, the switch from an employed job to running your own enterprise leads to an increase of life satisfaction. The reasons for this satisfaction lies in the autonomy, flexibility, and the use of skills that entrepreneurship entails (Hundley, 2001).

Different studies show that in general a relationship exists between success and satisfaction (e.g. Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). Happy people are more successful in various fields, like marriage, friendship, income and health. This is a two-way system, so success also makes happier.

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Method and data

A total of 277 Dutch entrepreneurs filled in an online questionnaire in 2012. The questionnaire not only covered subjective success measures and satisfaction with life and work, but also the specific job demands that belong to entrepreneurship and the relationship of these job demands with work-related stress and work engagement (Dijkhuizen et al., 2014). The respondents – entrepreneurs active as a business owner for more than one year – looked back to the year 2011 and what they achieved in subjective success. The Subjective Entrepreneurial Success Scale (Dej, 2011) was used. Next to this scale for subjective success, the entrepreneurs also assessed their satisfaction about their life and about their work as an entrepreneur. The Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985) is used for the estimation of life satisfaction. An adapted version is used for the measurement of job satisfaction.

Subjective success factors

From the factor analysis it is clear that six factors are paramount for perceiving success. The factors are: personal financial success, business financial success, social factors (societal contribution and social recognition), relationship with clients, reaching personal goals (balance work-private life and decision freedom), and personal development.

The highest scores concerning experiencing success are found for the factors personal development, relationship with clients, and achieving personal goals. Especially the results with regard to realizing personal goals and personal development, are obvious. The motivation to work as an entrepreneur is after all being your own boss, spreading your vision, flexibility and freedom to making your own decisions. The satisfaction about the good relationship with clients can possibly arise from the bad economic conditions in which it is even more important than ever before to strengthen this bond to realize financial continuity. The sample of entrepreneurs in The Netherlands indicated least often that they were successful in the field of their personal and business financial success. Two years later the same items were presented to a part of the sample who indicated they wanted to take part in a supplementary study. It seems that also in the year 2013 the same success factors emerge which were experienced as frequent or infrequent.

Results

Table 1 indicates the correlations between the different factors of subjective success of the entrepreneur and his/her satisfaction on life and on entrepreneurship. From the correlations it seems that particularly work satisfaction is showing high correlation with success. More specifically, the relationship between the experienced personal financial success and job satisfaction is large. The life satisfaction is strongly

dependent on the experienced success on achieving personal goals.

Remarkable is that there are differences between men and women in the experience of entrepreneurial success. Based on data on turnover, profit and number of employees, we can identify that the male entrepreneurs in both 2011 and 2013, realized a higher score on these objective success criteria. However, on almost all items of personal and financial subjective success, women give a higher score to what they achieved than their male colleagues. This could mean that women have other expectations and wishes on financial success than male entrepreneurs. We are taking indeed about the own perception of success.

Table 1: Correlations between subjective success and satisfaction, 2012

	life satisfaction	job satisfaction
Subjective success		
personal financial success	.30*	.39*
business financial success	.18*	.32*
social factors	.19*	.20*
relationship clients	.18*	.30*
personal goals	.41*	.28*
personal development	.26*	.24*

* Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Conclusions

Achieving your personal goals and personal development is crucial for the own perception of success. These factors are also connected to life satisfaction. Whether an entrepreneur is satisfied about his/her entrepreneurship, mostly relates to achieving personal and business financial success. The experienced success seem to relate to the job satisfaction; this means that a broader view on successful entrepreneurship is important. More attention to the individual experience of success and well-being is good for the business owner and finally for the economy in general. It would therefore be interesting for policy makers to give room to an individual approach of entrepreneurs by stimulating individual coaching and mentoring.

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